

**GUIDANCE
IN
ELEMENTARY
EDUCATION**

EDUCATION FOR LIVING SERIES
Under the Editorship of
H. H. Remmers

Roy DeVerl Willey

UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA

GUIDANCE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

372.

Revised Edition

81 775
— p. 121 — Vol I

HARPER & BROTHERS, PUBLISHERS

New York



21 cm.

Social Education
Training Centre
Rs. 5. 6. 00

GUIDANCE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
Revised Edition

Library of Congress catalog card number: 59-13920

To My Children

Robert DeVerl Young Willey

Kimball Young Willey

Sara-Jennis Young Willey

Quentin Young Willey

Andrea Elizabeth Young Willey

Dorothy Geneve Young Willey

who provided the laboratory

and inspiration for this book

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Editor's Foreword to the Revised Edition

In this thorough revision, while Professor Willey has performed extensive surgery, the substantive value content has not changed. Despite the often discordant clamor of self-appointed critics of education it is no longer necessary to argue the case for guidance in elementary education. Everything that the child experiences matters, and those who would restrict the function of the school to the development of the cognitive aspects of pupils do education and the coming generations a serious disservice.

Much recent discussion in the public mass media has been concerned with what we as a nation are *against*. This book, refreshingly, is very clear about what we are *for*. And with precept and example it provides an excellent guide to the teacher in implementing the objectives of elementary education in our society. With Professor Willey's concepts of the teacher as the chief guidance functionary, the curriculum as all school-controlled pupil experience, and the educational task as the joint responsibility of teacher, guidance specialist, administration, and the home I find myself in agreement.

The sane evaluation of techniques and procedures will commend the book to the teachers of teachers. I share Professor Willey's conviction that, in order to understand children as she should, the teacher must become familiar with, and at least somewhat proficient in, the use of a number of such techniques and procedures, e.g., time sampling, sociometric measurement, critical evaluation of tests, and the like.

Not only school personnel will find this an important tool. The intelligent parent and citizen will gain intellectual stimulation and deeper insight into the most important concern of those who care about the future: the education in all aspects of our children.

H. H. REMMERS

Preface to the Revised Edition

Throughout the history of education, guidance of the elementary school child has been a concern of good teachers. In contemporary education, D. A. Thom was among the first to direct attention to "the everyday problems of the everyday child,"¹ as was also Ernest Harms who wrote, *Handbook of Child Guidance*.² Both of these scholars presented a common-sense concept of guidance in that "guidance is necessary in practically all segments of life of our youth and, if totally developed, would bring about the adjustment of the child to the problems of modern life."³

Notwithstanding this historical background, guidance in the elementary school is currently an abstract concept. One school of thought would describe the process as a composite of special services rendered by specialists who work with parents and teachers

or with pupils in individual counseling. Another school thinks of guidance as an aspect of classroom procedure with the teacher as the principal functionary. It is to this broader point of view that this book gives emphasis.

Guidance is assistance given by a trained, experienced, and mature person in whom the individual helped has confidence. A person who has been guided is better enabled to direct his own life, to develop his own point of view, to make his own decisions, and to solve his personal problems. The trained, experienced, and mature person may be any member of the entire school staff who can stimulate the child to achieve objectives leading to self-development.

Guidance embraces the significance of the emotions, the personal needs, and all those other forces which make the child what he is. With no intention of decreasing the importance of subject matter in the curriculum, the author regards the acquisition of the facts and skills of subject matter as dependent upon desirable personality adjustment.

Only those techniques have been included which are usable by the classroom teacher. A degree of boldness may be detected by some clinical psychologists in the author's attempt to modify certain techniques for practical classroom use. However, there has been no intention to revise the function of a clinical psychologist so it can be absorbed by the classroom teacher. The aptitude, experience, and training necessary for a clinical psychologist should not be expected of teachers. The illustrations included may sometimes seem unrefined and somewhat simplified to the expert, but they have been chosen because they represent the work of actual classroom teachers in actual classroom situations.

The author does not claim originality in presenting this volume. Most of the phases of education cited have been discussed in periodical literature. For the first time, nevertheless, the widely scattered points of view regarding guidance in elementary education have been gathered together and presented in one volume. It is hoped that even the nonprofessional reader will become more appreciative of the child as a human being who is continuously undergoing an intricate process of adjustment to an increasingly complex and changing world. The child has always been in need

of a sympathetic and understanding teacher, but never in the modern civilized world has this need been greater and more urgent than today. If the teacher who reads this book is made aware of the importance of happiness in childhood as a contributing factor to making a peaceful world, the author will feel that his effort has been justified. This volume has been primarily designed as a textbook for use in the introduction of elementary school guidance.

The revision of the book represents an up-to-date description of current guidance programs. The material has been summarized and condensed, with more emphasis directed to the practical aspects of guidance in the elementary school. This has necessitated a careful revision to retain the essential facts relating to human growth and development. The current revision is approximately 200 pages briefer than the original volume. Although the author has made a vigorous effort to retain the essential subject matter, only the reader can evaluate the success of this attempt. Bibliographies have been brought up to date with recognition given to the several textbooks published since the appearance of the original volume of *Guidance in Elementary Education* in 1952.

The author wishes to express his appreciation to Dr. H. H. Remmers, Professor of Psychology and Education, Purdue University, for reading the manuscript and for his suggestions for improvement; and to Helen Ann Young Willey for her untiring effort in helping to improve the content, organization, and style of writing. The author also acknowledges gratitude to the several authors, publishers, and periodicals who granted permission to reprint material.

ROY DEVERL WILLEY

**GUIDANCE
IN
ELEMENTARY
EDUCATION**

CHAPTER I

Guidance in the Elementary Schools

WHAT IS GUIDANCE?

You, as the reader of this book, are presented with a question: "What is guidance?" If the question is answered when you have finished reading, it will not be because a definite answer has been given by the writer but because you will have formulated your own answer—an answer, we hope, which will have been inspired by a point of view, a philosophy, a new emphasis upon the concept of *teaching* itself which permeates this entire volume. These chapters have been written for the specific purpose of inculcating a point of view—an emphasis and approach and consideration of certain aspects of teaching.

Essentially, guidance is closely related to *controlled environment*—environment in which several forces share control, but in which the most dominant force is the classroom teacher. Guidance provides an environment in which every child can grow into a socially desirable, happy, and wholesome personality.

In such an environment we avoid telling the child what to do and how to do it; rather, we encourage him to develop traits of self-direction, self-control, and self-appraisal. We place the child in an atmosphere that permits a maximum of shared responsibilities and privileges—in short, where he can make an adequate

adjustment to the society in which he lives. As an individual and as a member of a group he will have an opportunity to help plan, execute, and evaluate his experiences. In such an environment he learns to understand himself by recognizing his own abilities and limitations. The integration of concepts, desires, ways of thinking and acting, is best guaranteed through happy social living rather than in a forced expression of facts or processes.

Guidance in the elementary school requires an organismic growth concept; that is, a consideration of the "whole child," in whom any one phase of growth becomes an integral part of total development. With such a concept guidance is concerned with physical, mental, emotional, and educational needs. All effort is directed toward the promotion of optimal growth and adjustment to life as a whole.

Because children in the elementary school are still relatively immature in their personality growth, they are impressionable and flexible in their responses to experience; thus we can focus attention on behavior as well as upon subject matter. Studies of individual development have emphasized the importance of childhood experiences in their effect upon later behavior. Furthermore, the effect of emotion on thinking and motivation begins at an early age and continues throughout life. The emotional feeling about self is as important for learning as the physical environment of the classroom or the teaching techniques of the instructor.

Guidance and the Curriculum

The curriculum may be defined as a series of school experiences which have effect on the behavior of the child. This includes anything affecting attitudes, beliefs, values, and knowledge. Because the environment should be sufficiently complex to permit a variety of desirable reactions, guidance assumes its significance in concern for both the environment and the individual who must adjust to it.

Changes in behavior permeate the entire person. These changes occur as a result of learning experiences. Briefly, a learning experience may be described in terms of steps. The first step requires that the pupil be placed in a state of temporary disequilibrium. This condition of imbalance results from the

presence of a desired goal. Between the desire (motive within the learner) and the goal is a barrier which results in a tension within the organism. The removal of this barrier and, in turn, the tension, involves the whole concept of guidance. The removal involves choice of the action which must eventually be made. Once the appropriate line of action has been adopted, it must then be maintained for future use. Generally, to be maintained it must be used in varied situations, and with this continued use comes the elimination of inappropriate behavior. From this description the usefulness of the guidance concept becomes apparent. As Rogers (23)¹ states, the instructor "has confidence in the fact that, in this atmosphere which he has helped to create, a type of learning takes place which is personally meaningful and which feeds the total self-development of the individual as well as improves his acquaintance with a given field of knowledge."

All desirable classroom work emerges from a consideration of the individual's organic and social needs which provide the essential motivation of behavior. Proper guidance assures that activities are in harmony with the basic needs of both the individual and society. Activities related to the pupils' needs will assure optimal cooperation and effort. Present child interest and needs may be wholly inconsistent with future requirements; thus, once again guidance becomes an essential factor in the educative process. Guidance aids the child to recognize a purpose in what he is doing, and to observe that he is progressing toward a goal which is acceptable and obtainable for him.

HISTORICAL HIGHLIGHTS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Guidance in the elementary school received historical momentum in the three or four organized attempts to improve the social, economic, and political conditions of the early twentieth century. The mental-hygiene crusade having the objectives of orienting the discharged mental patient to society, of educating the public

¹ The italic numbers in parentheses apply to the references at the end of each chapter.

about sanity, and of effecting legislative aid, gave momentum to the establishment of the child-guidance clinics. The Chicago Juvenile Psychopathic Institute, founded by Dr. William Healy in 1909 under the sponsorship of Mrs. W. F. Dummer, was the pioneer guidance clinic. These clinics, having the aim of "bettering the adjustment of children to their immediate environment, with special reference to their emotional and social relationships, to the end that they may be free to develop to the limit of their individual capacities for well-balanced maturity" are closely related to guidance in the elementary school.

Guidance ventures in many cities of the United States emerged from school retardation, truancy, and delinquency. This was the primary reason for the establishment of the Experimental Seattle School Guidance Bureau 1913-1916 (21). The keen interest in the construction and use of tests in the study of the individual which arose in the early years of the twentieth century is a cornerstone of the guidance movement. Such names as Galton, Cattell, Binet, Terman, Otis, Thorndike, Spearman, and Thurstone are all associated with the testing of abilities of children. The work of these men has helped us to predict human behavior with relative accuracy. The introduction of standardized tests gave emphasis to a common definition of guidance as individualized instruction.

We may conclude that the modern guidance movement as it exists today has grown out of the humanitarian principle of universal brotherhood and the twentieth century's growing interest in individual differences.

PROCEDURE FOR EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Requirements for Personnel Responsible for Guidance

No longer is the sole criterion for guidance a knowledge of subject matter. Important as this criterion may be, there is the additional requirement of understanding the characteristics of pupils and their society. An understanding of pupils includes a knowledge of biological and social requirements.

Teachers who understand children think of behavior as being caused. During the several phases of their development, young children face a series of common "developmental tasks." Understanding teachers know what these tasks are, their sequence and timing in relation to physical, social, and mental maturity, and what complications often arise as persons with different characteristics and background attempt to guide them.

Another requirement for intelligent guidance is the knowledge of the learning process. Essentially the learning process constitutes a change which results in growth. Experiences are chosen according to the maturity of the organism to assure that situations are not too simple or too complex. Guidance is usually required to select those appropriate experiences which will lead to desirable modifications of behavior.

Furthermore, good guidance requires a knowledge of emotions, attitudes, and interests of children. Forces determining emotions, attitudes, and interests are often social in nature. Problems involved in belonging to different groups can best be understood when these problems are related to coordination, integration, and cooperation, by restricting personal freedom, and by sharing obligations, rights, and privileges. It is essential to have a thorough knowledge of subject-matter content as well as the materials and methods (experiences) by which children most readily give access to this content, discover its relationship to themselves and their lives, and then develop a functional mastery of it. Necessary, too, is "a knowledge of the structure and dynamics of each class as a group, because the children in it will function together throughout the year and because the structure and dynamics of the group influence the motivation and behavior of individual children and of the teacher" (20:25).

Guidance depends upon a careful, systematic, and continuous study of each child. This requirement can be met only after data are carefully recorded and interpreted to show the status of the pupil at any given time and his growth over a period of years. Because techniques of measurement and the recording of observations are the bases of an applied science of guidance, all personnel responsible for guidance duties must have special training in this field.

The Role of the Teacher

Basically dependent upon the doctrine of individual differences, guidance is concerned with helping pupils to discover their needs and abilities, to develop desirable purposive action, to plan for this action, and to proceed toward the realization of the goals chosen. At the heart of the guidance program is the teacher herself. Guidance in the elementary school is an integral part of the learning process. The teacher should not accept the premise that guidance concerns itself primarily with problems of serious maladjustment. With the possible exception of the child's parent, no single person has greater influence on personality development than the classroom teacher. This is a magnificent responsibility and requires specific and careful preparation. The first step in this preparation is to understand the child. The teacher must be aware of the deviations from normal tendencies and the behavior symptoms of physical, mental, and emotional disturbances. Cognizant of individual differences in capacities, needs, and interests, the teacher must be acquainted with the procedures for measuring and determining these differences.

The teacher must, then, learn to interpret scientific data and employ such techniques of observation as the time-sampling descriptions and other forms of anecdotal records. She should have specific information to help pupils solve some of their common problems. Effective guidance requires maintenance and utilization of objective cumulative records, diagnostic procedures, preventive measures. These many demands necessitate study of specialized education in child psychology, mental hygiene, and guidance techniques. Obviously, the success of any guidance program depends on classroom teachers who are prepared to coöperate in school-wide or city-wide planning and with specialists in community agencies.

The process of guidance can continue efficiently only as the proper use of instruments for guidance is learned. The most frequently used of these instruments is probably the test score, which offers information about the present aptitude and achievement of pupils. Closely related to it is the cumulative record,

on which is kept information about home background, health, interests, extracurricular activities, and achievements. The teacher who finds she has no access to standardized test scores and cumulative records will be handicapped in understanding her pupils.

The teacher's most obvious relation to the adjustment of her pupils is in learning situations. A teacher soon becomes skillful in detecting such abilities as mental alertness, accuracy, completeness, relevancy, precision of vocabulary, and memory, by watching a pupil learn under natural conditions. When she listens to a pupil think aloud as he works an arithmetic example, wasteful and inaccurate habits are frequently discovered. Teacher and pupil then proceed toward action for improvement. This is good guidance and good teaching. In addition to adjusting the curriculum to individual differences, the guidance function of the teacher will consist in observing and studying children, record keeping, cooperating with school administration, consulting with parents, and maintaining good mental health for herself and pupils.

The Teacher as a Co-Worker

Although the classroom teacher is the principal functionary in the guidance program, she welcomes the necessary help of the guidance specialist, the psychologist, the psychiatrist, and the array of other specialists whose function lies not in classroom teaching but, nevertheless, in the assurance of desirable child development. The specialist is any person connected with the school whose chief responsibility is not classroom teaching but helping the child to adjust by diagnostic and therapeutic procedures for which the regular classroom teacher is either untrained or for which she does not have sufficient time.

That understanding between teacher and specialist be promoted, the two must not merely agree on the functions and process of counseling, but they must also work together harmoniously. The specialist presumably has more time and skill to diagnose pupil difficulties than does the teacher. However, he should not attempt to render any service that can be done adequately by the teacher. Teachers, because of their closer contacts with pupils, are frequently in a better position to provide

information and data for effective counseling than can be obtained by the specialist alone. The teacher can observe and report on pupil progress, talents, attitudes, reactions, and interests in the form of narrative description, rating scale, anecdotal record, and case study. Anecdotal records, especially, enable teachers to make a contribution to the guidance of individual pupils.

An illustration of coöperation among personnel is seen in the procedures of the "case conference," in which all those concerned about a pupil assemble and present data. In the case conference mutual respect of specialists and teacher can be developed through the clarification of information and data gathered by each. From conferences the specialist may develop the teacher's understanding and interest. The specialist in turn must depend upon the teacher for a "follow-up" of the majority of cases. Because of the specialist's help, the teacher's work is often simplified.

Equally important to teacher-specialist coöperation are harmonious relationships between teacher and administrator, and between parent and teacher. With the parent, in particular, the teacher plays a major role in developing an understanding and appreciation of the work of the school. The solution of the guidance problems of the majority of pupils requires teamwork between parent and teacher. Perhaps there is no one in the school with whom parents would rather talk about their children than the teacher; thus, the teacher has a major responsibility in developing desirable school public relations.

The School Counselor, Psychologist, and Psychiatrist

There have yet been made no clear distinctions between psychologist, psychiatrist, and psychometrist. The duties of these specialists overlap even in a school system employing all three of them. A counselor may find his task including the duties of all specialists mentioned thus far, and if he happens to be a high school counselor his duties will include those of vocational guidance and placement officers. In addition to these specialists, we may include such personnel as the remedial-reading specialist,

the speech correctionist, or the teacher of handicapped children.

The responsibility of administering and interpreting mental tests is prevailingly delegated to the school psychologist or psychometrist when the services of these specialists are available. Projective techniques, however, are usually limited to the psychologist. It is difficult to distinguish certain phases of the work of the psychologist from that of the psychiatrist, particularly when we speak of the clinical psychologist. Currently the qualifications of a clinical psychologist have not been defined, but the requirements for certification of such a specialist have been clarified somewhat by an American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology. This board declares that a clinical psychologist should have completed a standard university program for a doctorate plus an additional year of internship. The internship should come after the second year of graduate work (26:79).

The field of psychiatry is that branch of medicine which deals with the diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of mental diseases and disorders. The psychiatrist is usually a physician trained to heal mental illness, to remove mental and emotional handicaps, and to prevent the appearance of such handicaps.

In actual practice the work of the psychiatrist or the clinician is limited to individual cases, often connected with child-guidance clinics. The detection of the more serious problems of adjustment must usually be made by the classroom teacher. Nevertheless, she should be careful not to arrive too hastily at conclusions about the nature of the difficulties. While psychotic symptoms should be recognized and reported, the teacher is not often prepared to provide adequate interpretation of, or treatment for, them.

The Visiting Teacher or Social Worker

Visiting teachers or social workers serve as interpreters and liaison officers between teacher and pupil and teacher and parent. From them the teacher can learn much about home conditions, parental attitudes, facilities for home study, and neighborhood environment. The visiting teacher is a trained social worker attached to a school; her main function is to help the school

and the home in dealing with the problems of children. When a problem is referred to her she attempts to discover what situations are causing the difficulty. She interprets the school to the home and also interprets the home and out-of-school life to the school.

The typical social worker is a graduate of a two-year course at a professional graduate school which emphasizes a combined training of classwork and field instruction. Included in her training should be instruction which acquaints her with the methods and reports of the psychologist.

The Role of the Pediatrician

Historically speaking, the pediatrician has been interested in the mental as well as the physical well-being of children. The earliest psychometrists, such as Simon and Binet of France, were by profession physicians. Although the special concern of the pediatrician today is the physical health of the child, his reports to parents and teachers may still include suggestions for mental health. Note the following reports by three pediatricians on the same child:

PEDIATRICIAN No. 1

April 4, 19—

This boy apparently had some cerebral injury early in life. Has a history of hard labor, whooping cough at six months, severe measles, polio at two and one half years—somewhere along here he has had cerebral damage. Now has a mental impairment, difficulty in speech, loss of the finer movements of his upper extremities. This should be treated by proper understanding of the child by his parents. He should have speech training by a speech correctionist if it can be arranged, and if the teacher thinks he could be benefited. There is no indication for physiotherapy or other orthopedic treatment.

PEDIATRICIAN No. 2

May 1, 19—

Present condition: Boy is physically normal. The patient is well developed and nourished. Appears quite alert. Has a nervous tick and is constantly clearing throat. When asked to count to ten, gets to two but immediately starts over and cannot get beyond two. When he reaches

this point he stops, clears his throat several times, apparently becoming quite nervous. Mother is in background constantly urging him.

Impression: I believe this is not due to any cerebral damage but is probably due to a strong psychiatric problem. For this reason, I advise the mother to see a psychiatrist or one of the local pediatricians who would refer her to a psychiatrist.

PEDIATRICIAN No. 3

June 16, 19—

Both a difficult birth and severe whooping cough are capable of damaging the brain, and it is evident that the child cannot talk as well as a normal child of his age. Physical examination and X-rays of the skull were all entirely normal. An intelligence test gave an IQ of 82, or dull normal. He has very skillful use of his hands and did much better in tests that did not involve language.

Another impression was that the boy seemed unwilling to try tasks that he could not be sure of performing well, as though he were afraid of being ridiculed. I came to the conclusion that although the boy's intelligence is below normal, there are emotional factors that hinder his best performance. The mother seems to be a perfectionist who has pushed her child ahead. Perhaps he would be happier and make faster progress if he were allowed to proceed at his own rate and to learn by his own mistakes. It is important to avoid situations where the boy might feel that he was being ridiculed, or where attention was being called to the imperfections of his performances.

DIFFERENCES IN POINTS OF VIEW ²

Even though its antecedents can be easily traced, any relatively recent innovation in educational theory is bound to be accompanied by controversial elements. Guidance in elementary education abounds with issues yet to be resolved. Some of the differences in points of view in the field of guidance are stated below, followed by comments reflecting the opinion of the writer.

1. Should guidance include all curriculum; that is, all school influences that do something about, to, or for children, or should it be limited to certain specialized services?

The writer accepts the integrated view with the primary focus on the child. Stress in guidance (as with teaching) should be upon self-understanding and self-development with mutual understanding, respect, and interaction, as well as individual introspection, as elements of significance. The child should be assisted to live in a democratic society with standards, values, and procedures. The boundaries of "in-school" and "out-of-school" life should be nonexistent; thus, such areas as coöperative endeavor, democratic values, and mutual understanding should be learned and practiced in a life setting.

2. Should guidance be concerned with nonintellectualized (noninstructional) problems only?

This point of view is closely related to that stated above. The writer maintains that intellectual learning cannot be separated from emotional aspects. Such experiential processes as self-acceptance, social relationships, and spiritual outlooks cannot be isolated from intellectual activity. A child who has been guided is better enabled to direct his own life, to develop his own point of view, to make his own decisions, and to solve his personal problems. These aspects of living cannot be described as non-intellectual.

3. Should guidance be considered as an aggregate of special services?

The "basic services" concept of guidance is convenient only for structuring a pattern for organizational purposes. The concept becomes acceptable and meaningful inasmuch as it utilizes the knowledge, connections, planning, and initiative of pupils and teachers in gaining optimum growth and development of personality. There is little purpose in classifying an accumulation of operations appearing in the school which have the semblance of guidance. Classification of guidance activities in the form of services must be preceded by a relatively long period of experiences by teachers and administrators in specific situations where guidance operates. Certainly, the concept of services should not exclude responsibility for a child's intellectual development.

4. Should guidance be limited to therapeutic functions in a face-to-face situation?

Although this question is closely related to the next, it should

be stated here that guidance should not be limited to a therapeutic framework. Although face-to-face counseling in a more restricted setting than the schoolroom is necessary, the work of the counselor cannot remain apart from the total educational process. Human relationships, including interaction within groups, should be a focal point of guidance activity. Such activity is broader than a one-to-one relationship between counselor and counselee.

5. Should guidance be concerned with prevention or cure?

Implicit in an answer to this question is the concept of adjustment; that is, if we can keep a child well adjusted a "cure" will not be necessary. Does the child fit in with his group? Guidance must not only be concerned with this question but also with that which asks, "How important is it that the child conform, perform normally, and achieve normally?" In the elementary school guidance must be considered as an approach to prevention so "cures" will be less frequently necessary in the secondary school.

6. Should guidance concentrate solely on "problem children"?

The aims of guidance should be focused on all students. Within this conceptual framework, however, attention must frequently be given to individual students.

7. Is the teacher or the specialist the principal functionary?

Basically, differences in point of view regarding the function of teacher and specialist are found in concepts of education and guidance. In most elementary schools guidance has not emerged as a concept separate from the functions of a teacher in the classroom. The writer holds the point of view that the classroom teacher is the principal functionary. Although she cannot hope to attain the depth of knowledge and skill of the specialist who will assist her, she must have at least an exposure to the interpretation of data gained by informal and standardized techniques.

8. Should guidance concentrate on crisis-points, or should it be continuous and cumulative?

The writer contends that guidance should begin upon school entrance in the kindergarten and be continuous throughout the child's school career. Children at different ages should learn certain behavior patterns and acquire knowledge about them-

selves and others. This is a continuous learning process; thus, guidance too must be continuous.

TYPICAL GUIDANCE PROGRAMS IN ACTION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The Guidance Program in the Grades at Tulsa, Oklahoma

Philosophy, Function, and Scope of the Guidance Program

A school guidance program is concerned in a broad sense with the mental and physical health and personality development of each child with whom the school comes in contact. Guidance is inherent in the total process of education. One of the ultimate goals of guidance is a well-integrated personality. The guidance program should concern itself with the problems of all youth, not just those who are disciplinary problems, failing in class work, or acute maladjustment cases. It is the purpose of the guidance program to help each individual make the best possible adjustment between his own emotional needs and the demands of the society in which he lives. Therefore, the immediate objective in guidance is to help each pupil meet and solve his problems as they arise. One of the ultimate objectives of all guidance is *self-guidance*. To achieve such a guidance program demands that we have a belief in and a respect for the dignity and worth of each individual child.

Every person who accepts responsibility for a share in the guidance program must aid in discovering the needs and problems of each child and help the child in resolving his problems. The guidance program includes both the helping of each child adjust to an established or required pattern, and the adjusting of the pattern to meet the needs of the individual child better.

The acceptance of the responsibility for a guidance program as defined above suggests the following implications for the school:

FOR THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD

1. To provide conditions that will give every child a maximum opportunity to feel socially secure, free from abnormal fears

and anxieties, happy in the belief that his best achievements are worthy and acceptable.

2. To provide opportunities for each child to find success.
3. To develop those understandings and attitudes that foster sound physical and mental health.
4. To develop fundamental attitudes toward good social behavior—behavior appropriate for various places and times.
5. To develop poise, resourcefulness, and increasing self-direction.
6. To develop interests of intellectual, social, and recreational value.
7. To aid in the selection of a worthy, satisfying vocation which is compatible with the individual's interests and aptitudes.
8. To develop self-control in terms of the best interests of the group and the attitudes and abilities of coöperating successfully with others—a sense of personal responsibility for group welfare.
9. To develop an understanding and a wholesome respect for the acceptance of one's own capabilities and limitations, as well as those of other people.
10. To develop confidence in, and respect for, one's self.

FOR THE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF THE SCHOOL

1. To place the needs of individual personalities above most other considerations of school procedure.
2. To provide a curriculum and working conditions where each child may work successfully to full capacity.
3. To provide conditions where children actively participate in planning and carrying through group activities successfully.
4. To provide teachers whose classrooms have an atmosphere of good will and kindly understanding.
5. To provide professional service to aid teachers in developing the attitudes, skills, and techniques necessary for successful counseling in the classrooms.
6. To provide health services that will aid in detecting physical conditions that may be causing maladjustment.
7. To provide materials for testing and recording data necessary

to understand the individual child's needs, aptitudes, and interests.

8. To provide counseling with parents where it is needed in order to help in the adjustment of the pupil.
9. To provide specialized services for those individuals who cannot be adjusted through group procedure or through the individual efforts of the classroom teacher.

FOR STAFF RELATIONSHIPS

1. To help staff members to understand some of the factors that may cause conflict between:
 - a. Teacher and pupil
 - b. Teacher and parent
 - c. Teacher and teacher
2. To provide an opportunity for an organized coöperative approach to the solution of staff problems.
3. To provide an opportunity for staff planning so that a common point of view and goals may be developed.

Organization and Functions of School Personnel for Guidance Purposes

CLASSROOM TEACHERS. Since guidance includes helping the child in all his activities—social, physical, recreational, emotional, as well as educational—the school must begin work with the first contact which it has with the pupil and continue throughout the pupil's entire school life.

The general program of guidance is carried on in a large measure by the classroom teacher. The classroom teacher holds the key role in the success or failure of the overall guidance program. The teacher must carry a major responsibility in creating a wholesome emotional climate in the classroom so that satisfactory learning experiences may be had. The teacher should know each child, both as an individual and as a member of the group, so that each child may be helped to make as much growth as possible within the limitations of his capacity for development.

Since the classroom teacher is in daily contact with the pupils, she is in a favorable position to render effective guidance to a large majority of them. She is also in a position to help detect

those individuals who may need assistance from persons with specialized training and the necessary time to work with individual pupils. The classroom teacher who accepts the responsibility and who has an understanding of child growth and development can do an effective job of guidance with most of the pupils.

Teacher observation and judgment are gaining significance as tools of good guidance. The services of class counselors, deans, principals, and other specialized personnel are available for those guidance cases that require more time and specialized personnel and treatment than the classroom teacher is able to provide.

CLASS COUNSELORS. The following items indicate the principal areas in which class counselors function:

1. Supervising the enrollment and initial orientation of pupils into junior high school.
2. Counseling the class groups on the activities of the local school program.
3. Coordinating the group counseling activities of each grade level.
4. Serving as advisor on planning activities which involve the patron, pupil, and the school.
5. Counseling with individuals on problems of maladjustment.
6. Counseling with parents and pupils on matters of school attendance.
7. Advising with classroom teachers on pupil personnel problems.
8. Confering with pupils and parents concerning the testing program used in the schools and interpreting test scores and information from the cumulative record.
9. Counseling with pupils on individual problems of scheduling and vocational and educational plans.
10. Helping in placing each pupil in a situation where he will develop in the best possible way.

The activities of the class counselors vary between schools, depending upon the size and organization of the school and the amount of time scheduled for the work of the counselor.

PRINCIPAL. The principal is responsible for providing leadership and coordinating the efforts of the entire school staff of each

individual school for the furtherance of the guidance program. He has the responsibility of carrying on an in-service program that will aid the classroom teacher and other personnel in understanding their responsibilities for guidance in the school. He supervises the efforts of special personnel who assist with problems that are too complicated and time consuming for the classroom teacher. The principal assumes much of the responsibility for making direct contact with the home and other agencies which need to be contacted in order to aid in the solution of specific problems. He provides educational leadership in promoting professional growth in his school.

Special Services Departments

HEALTH DEPARTMENT. The school health department is responsible for determining by means of medical examination whether there is any physical basis for a guidance problem which a child presents. Pupils are referred by the principal to the school physician through the school nurse. Referrals from such sources as the Special Education Department, Psychiatric Service, Reading Clinic, or Testing Department are made by direct appointment. After referrals are made to the health department, conferences are held with the persons concerned with the guidance problem.

A corps of nurses provides service to the schools on a regular schedule or upon special call from the school. The nurse counsels with pupils, parents, and teachers regarding health problems of individual pupils.

ATTENDANCE AND CENSUS DEPARTMENT. This department maintains a complete census and attendance record for each pupil. The Attendance and Census Department issues all work permits to minors. The director counsels with minors and their parents on problems relating to employment and school attendance.

TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS DEPARTMENT. The Department of Tests and Measurements provides a regular program of tests of achievement and progress, capacities and interests of boys and girls. These tests provide data which aid in understanding the needs and development of children. Services include group examinations and individual examinations. Group examinations

are given as city-wide programs. Individual tests are given to children who are too young to work well in group situations, to new pupils, to pupils with special abilities or difficulties, or to pupils about whom detailed information is needed in working toward a better adjustment of the child. Conferences are held with parents, teachers, principals, and other guidance personnel working with the individual child. The Department of Tests and Measurements also serves as an agency of the veterans' testing service.

READING CLINIC. The Reading Clinic is a laboratory for diagnosis and remedial instruction. It analyzes the individual pupil's reading case to determine the difficulty existing and suggests remedial techniques. The clinic provides assistance for the treatment of reading cases, both in the clinic and in the classroom, by the classroom teachers. The personnel of the clinic counsel with pupils, teachers, and parents regarding the individual case.

SPECIAL EDUCATION. This department assists in providing educational facilities for children who cannot be best served in regular classes. This includes educational facilities for speech defectives, hard-of-hearing or deaf, crippled children, gifted, mentally retarded or slow learners, home-bound, and maladjusted children.

Special classes are maintained in various schools for mentally retarded, slow learners, or maladjusted children. Other special classes are maintained for the deaf or hard-of-hearing children at Longfellow Elementary School, Horace Mann Junior High School, and Central High School. Classes for crippled children are maintained at the Lincoln Elementary School. Classes are also maintained for the convalescent or crippled children at the Children's Medical Center. A sight-saving class is held at the individual school by speech therapists who are regularly scheduled at the school or through speech instruction at the clinic. Other schools have organized remedial classes for special purposes such as reading. Classes for gifted children have been organized on an experimental basis at the junior and senior high school level, e.g., mathematics and science.

VISITING COUNSELORS. The visiting counselors provide special assistance to parents, pupils, and teachers by securing information and counseling on problems involving unsatisfactory school

work due to irregular attendance or exceptional behavior. They also aid in making referrals to other agencies in the community who may assist in solving certain guidance problems beyond the scope or function of the school services. The chief function of the visiting counselor is to serve as a liaison person between the school and the pupil and parent. Through their direct contacts with the home, the counselors are able to do more effective counseling than can be done by the teacher or school counselor who is unable to make the necessary home calls.

PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICE. The school psychologist provides special psychological testing and counseling with pupils, parents, and teachers on individual cases of pupils. The psychologist also helps to provide in-service education for teachers, parents, and other guidance personnel regarding problems of mental health.

ADULT FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION. This department affords assistance to individual schools in providing a program of adult guidance in relation to the children of that particular school and their parents. Services are available to adult groups as well as individuals regarding family life problems.

ADULT EDUCATION. The Adult Education program offers a wide range of educational services. It offers out-of-school youth and adults opportunities for learning new occupations, or being upgraded in their chosen field. The program provides opportunities for cultural advancement and for wholesome recreational learning. Classes will be organized for almost any subject area where there are sufficient adult students requesting the service.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE. Most of the program of vocational guidance is integrated into the general program of instruction and guidance in the regular school curriculum. The program of vocational guidance makes its first organized approach to all students through a unit of work taught in the ninth grade on vocations. Work is given in special-matter areas at the junior and senior high school level regarding vocational opportunities related to the particular field of education being studied. For example, the junior high school industrial arts program offers rich exploratory and try-out experiences to seventh- and eighth-grade boys in a variety of basic industrial activities. Ninth-grade pupils

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in some of the schools may elect further industrial arts courses which will give them additional experiences in some of the areas in which they have shown interest and aptitude.

Interest, aptitude, and achievement tests are administered at the secondary school level and used to aid in determining the curriculum for individuals. Special vocational counseling is given to individual pupils by class counselors, deans, and the administrative staff. In some of the high schools special courses in personal relationships or orientation are provided which give opportunity for personal analysis and discussion and counseling for future vocational or educational plans. Students may be given a series of tests to be used for personal analysis and individual guidance. Counseling is provided for the interpretation of the tests in terms of the special aptitudes or interests of the individual. These programs are provided at the eleventh and twelfth grade of the high school.

COÖPERATIVE PROGRAM (SUPERVISED PART-TIME WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAM). The part-time job training program is carried on in our high schools in several areas. Many students are guided into these programs, wherein they attend school one-half day and work one-half day in business establishments in the community. This phase of the curriculum includes the program of distributive education, providing experiences in the fields of retailing; diversified occupations, providing experiences in trade and industrial occupations; and office training, providing experiences in the business field. The students in these programs are given individual attention and guidance both from the school coördinator and the employer. Information of vocational value is also given by the coördinators or other teachers of related classes or classes in the general school program. Bridging the gap between school and employment is one of the goals of these programs.

Guidance in the Elementary Schools at Glencoe, Illinois

Philosophy

There is a growing recognition that successful guidance at the upper school levels must be superimposed upon more funda-

mental guidance of adjustment programs which reach children in their earlier years. In the future, schools may offer guidance to parents of preschool children. Inasmuch as we have more pupils at the primary years than at other levels, our efforts to prevent maladjustments during these early years constitute a much more constructive and significant mental-hygiene program than the attempts to remedy serious problem situations after they occur. Guidance is an integral part of the whole school system and is not limited to a separate service or department staffed with specialists who are concerned only with serious cases of maladjustment. Guidance should be concerned with the study, understanding, and adjustment of every child. This means concern with curriculum, staff morale, teacher load, emotional climate, classes, pupil tension, teacher tension, and physical arrangements—and with the home and community.

Glencoe Plan for Guidance Services

1. Studying the new pupil.
 - a. Mental-hygiene discussion groups for kindergarten and first-grade teachers, led by a counselor, are held once or twice a month.
 - b. An interview is conducted with the mother of each pupil in which is used a parent-interview blank. This interview takes place shortly after the child enters school. As a result of the interview, the teacher learns and records facts about home background and family relationships, developmental history, preschool interests and experiences, the problems at home, and what parents expect of the school. In cases where the child has presented difficulties from the time he enrolled, the guidance counselor may be asked to participate in the first conference.
 - c. Parent-interview forms are filed in cumulative record folders. A supplementary confidential sheet concerning parental attitudes may also be filed in the guidance office.
 - d. A cumulative-record folder is started for every child upon school entrance. On it is found the teacher's impression of the pupil.

2. Guidance and curriculum counselors.
 - a. The teacher or parent may ask the help of the guidance or curriculum counselors at any time.
 - b. These specialists include the school nurse or the counselors in music, art, crafts, library, science, and physical education.
 - c. The guidance counselor is frequently asked to observe a child in his classroom.
3. Reports to the parent.
 - a. Copies of reports sent to parents several times a year are kept on file. From these reports, informal in style, are found indications of the child's growth as an individual personality, a member of the group, and in fundamental knowledge and skills.
 - b. Parents may discuss reports with teachers at any time.
4. The use of tests.
 - a. First-grade readiness tests are given after about two weeks in the first grade. Group tests have not been found to be very satisfactory. The Metropolitan Reading Test has been used frequently, but the results are never used alone for grade placement.
 - b. Children whose obvious variations of development require special guidance are discovered through assembling a "profile" of the child's chronological age, readiness-test score, mental age, and intelligence quotient. Many differences exist between children at their school entrance, and they appear to increase with age and experience.
 - c. For those children whose Metropolitan Readiness Test scores are low an individual Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test is given.
5. Careful consideration to physical and mental health.
 - a. Basic habits and patterns of response are observed.
 - b. Coöperation of teacher, guidance counselor, and mother helps the child.
6. The classroom teacher is the key person in guidance.
 - a. Good mental health of the teacher is required.

7. The guidance counselor.

- a. The guidance counselor is a full-time psychologist. The duties of this specialist are (1) to coöperate closely with a full-time curriculum counselor and with a psychometrist; (2) to serve as a resource person who helps to plan and to supervise the gathering of data about home and family background, developmental history, physical health, capacities, needs, interests, and achievements; (3) to help the teacher use facts rather than to relieve her of problems; (4) to observe classrooms, hold conferences with teachers, and interview parents jointly with teachers; (5) to accept direct responsibilities in the guidance of a child; (6) to interpret the mental-hygiene and guidance program of the school to teachers and parents, and carry on a continuous program of education in these fields; (7) to analyze facts gathered and the results obtained in the adjustment of pupils so that a mutual adjustment of school to pupil and pupil to school may improve continuously.

8. The intermediate and upper classes. •

- a. In these grades there is a continuation of parent-teacher conferences; testing programs; adjustment of curriculum to individual needs, interests, and abilities; and the coöperation of the guidance counselor with teachers and parents when special help is needed.

**Guidance in the Elementary Schools
at San Jose, California**

Philosophy

Counseling in the elementary grades is mainly based on a pupil-teacher relationship and is practically uniform. At the center of the guidance program in the elementary school is the teacher. Guidance is an integral part of the teaching and learning process. The teacher should not entertain the fallacy that guidance consists primarily of solving problems of serious maladjustment. Children need to work out their problems themselves, and often they need protection from the overly indulgent or overly anxious parent.

San Jose Plan for Guidance Services

TESTING PROGRAM. The testing program reflects recommendations made by a committee of elementary school principals. The group testing program is administered under the direction of the school psychometrist. Individual testing is accomplished by a staff of three clinical psychologists. Referral for psychological services originates with the classroom teacher upon the approval of the school principal.

ORGANIZATION AND ACTIVITIES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. The teacher judges and gives guidance to the child from the basis of known facts: status of home, health conditions of the child, community environment, tests, attendance, and behavior traits. She studies the whole child and tries to create proper school and home life so that the pupil may be guided to live a more integrated life.

The Department of Special Services consists of special case work, psychological services, special education services and referral services for the elementary school guidance activities. Special services personnel utilize many community agencies and work directly with guidance, clinical, medical, and other agencies that have as their principal function the services for children.

The health guidance program is also centered in the teacher. She encourages and instructs children in good health habits and also creates an environment in the school room that is conducive to healthful living. Any child with a health problem is referred to the school physician when necessary. A regular preventive program of vaccination and immunization has been followed for a number of years with considerable success. As a result, communicable diseases have been reduced to a minimum. A health history is kept for each child. A physical examination is given to all low first-grade pupils and high sixth-grade pupils by the school physicians. Special cases are also referred to the school physicians. In addition, an eye test is given to all children, and an audiometer test to all children above the second grade. Children deficient in hearing are given instruction in lip reading. A child eligible for the county hospital or clinic care is always referred when the case is justifiable.

All health information is recorded on a health card which is begun on the child's entrance in the San Jose School Department. It is included in the "life packet," which also contains cumulative records of his social and scholastic accomplishments. One card contains personal history, grade placement, and teachers' judgments on scholastic attainment. Another contains a record of all individual and group tests given throughout the school life of the child. Others contain lists of books read; reading levels of each book are indicated.

Referrals to special service personnel result in individual case work studies involving child, teacher, parents, and other forces bearing upon the child's adjustment. If satisfactory adjustments cannot be secured through manipulation of school and home environments under the direction of special services personnel, referrals are made to the appropriate community agency.

The duties and activities of the director of child welfare can be classified under the following general headings: Attendance, Probation Department, Psychiatric Clinic, and Special Services. The attendance supervisor is called when the school needs additional help in solving problems. Interviews are held with the student, parent, teacher, and principal to discover the causes leading to the attendance irregularity and to work out a satisfactory solution. Follow-ups are made from time to time in order to make further adjustments if necessary. In extreme cases, where a satisfactory arrangement cannot be found, the case is referred to the Juvenile Court for additional aid.

PROBATION DEPARTMENT. The small percentage of students who come in contact with the Juvenile Court and Probation Office are handled by the director of child welfare. A school history of the pupil is prepared for the court; then the court consults with the school representative on possible recommendations and aids the school can offer. The case worker attends the court hearing and later works with the probation officer on each individual case. The work with the probation office consists largely of acquainting the school with the problem of the individual and assisting the student in his adjustment. The parents are consulted by the school department in the adjustment program.

Guidance in the Elementary Schools at Long Beach, California

Long Beach Public Schools have maintained elementary counselors for the past 25 years (33 counselors serve 52 schools).

The Counselor

The counselor's position has three parts (1) individual guidance and study, (2) testing, (3) recording.

Individual Guidance

The elementary school child who is having difficulty adjusting to the school situation is referred to the counselor by his teacher, his parents, or the principal. The counselor must then observe and study the individual in an attempt to discover the cause of maladjustment. He sometimes administers an individual intelligence test, observes the child in his group both in the classroom and on the playground, talks with his teacher, and calls on the parents or invites them to visit school.

Two Central Offices Offering Help

1. The health department.
2. Office of Child Welfare (attendance and special education).
A child in need of physical care is referred to the school nurse, who in turn arranges for an examination by the school doctor.

School Psychologists and School Social Workers

A child in need of additional psychological study is referred to the Office of Counseling and Psychological Services, a member of which schedules tests and parent interviews and works with the child on a weekly basis.

Four-Way Conference

Parents, principal, teacher, and counselor meet in an effort to determine the ideal placement or treatment for the child. If the problem was originally caused by home conditions, the parents

are given suggestions to help correct it. If the school situation caused undue emotional tension, the child may be placed in one of the special classes for hard of hearing, sight saving, or minimum academic program.

Counseling System

During the year certain groups of children are tested throughout the city. The counselor is responsible for administering and scoring, recording, and tabulating results. Groups tested vary from year to year, but usually they include a third-grade battery of tests, including intelligence test; a fifth-grade intelligence test, and a battery at the fifth- and sixth-grade arithmetic test level. Each building has its own testing program in addition. Any classroom teacher may request a reading, arithmetic, or standardized intelligence test. All new children are given an intelligence test. Occasionally personality inventories or questionnaires are given to sixth-grade groups to determine interests and abilities before the children enter junior high school. Each counselor is provided with part-time clerical help to score and record. To secure diagnostic value from any test, the results must be thoroughly discussed with the teacher. The counselor's office is a clearing house for records. Each child has a permanent record card. This accompanies him to junior high school. The counselor's responsibility is to see that the child's attendance has been recorded, along with any test data, pertinent health information, or brief remarks by the teacher.

The counseling staff meets once each month to compare guidance techniques and to discuss ways of improving methods. A supervisor provides the staff with recent reading lists and information about current university courses for teacher training in guidance.

PRINCIPLES OF GOOD ADMINISTRATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Improvement of guidance services can be expected only inasmuch as they are organized under a central administrative authority. An administrative pattern is essential to avoid dupli-

cation of specialists and community agencies, as well as to coördinate services for children with problems. Regardless of the structural pattern eventually adopted by a school system, certain principles of good administration in the elementary school guidance program can be summarized as follows:

1. Organization must emerge after a point of view has been established. It emanates from a consideration of the needs of the pupils and the community, as well as the philosophy and concepts of the staff.
2. The guidance program must be organized with coöperation and earnestness permeating all participants in guidance activities.
3. The guidance program must contribute directly to the realization of the school's total objectives.
4. Those who direct the guidance program should have respect for individual worth and a knowledge of the importance of individual development.
5. Guidance is inherent in every part of the school that is concerned with assisting the child to make adjustments and interpretation and to solve personal problems.
6. Proper guidance assists the individual to integrate all of his life's activities.
7. Assistance should be extended to all normal individuals as well as the obviously maladjusted.
8. Guidance in the real sense requires professional knowledge and competence.
9. The guidance program should extend from the kindergarten to at least two years beyond high school.
10. Only by definite allocation of responsibilities can there be proper coördination between specialists and classroom teachers, and between guidance specialists and administrators.
11. Periodic appraisals of the guidance program must be made.

SUMMARY

Guidance is a special concept of the teaching process which requires a specific point of view. Primarily, it is concerned with the provision of an environment in which every child can grow into a socially desirable, happy, and wholesome personality. Such

an environment has to be controlled to guarantee a maximum of shared responsibilities and privileges where pupils can help plan, execute, and evaluate their experiences. Only under such conditions can the pupil develop self-control, self-direction, and self-appraisal—all essential elements in making an adequate adjustment to the society in which he lives. Guidance requires an organismic growth concept encouraging a recognition of the importance of the "whole child," where any one phase of growth becomes an integral part of the organism's development. Attention is granted to physical, mental, emotional, and social needs of the child.

The curriculum is the series of experiences the child undergoes in school. These experiences are planned coöperatively by teacher and pupils and include a range of activities for classroom, playground, community, and home. Proper guidance guarantees that activities are in harmony not only with the basic organic and social needs of the individual but also with the important needs of society. A properly guided child will see purpose in what he is doing, will recognize progress, and will know that the accomplishment of his goal is within the best needs of society. Illustrative of the basic requirements for personnel responsible for guidance are (1) understanding the characteristics of children at different age levels; (2) knowledge of the learning process; (3) knowledge of emotions, attitudes, and interests; and (4) special training in the field of guidance.

The subject of elementary school guidance is not free from controversial issues. The following questions are often discussed: "Shall guidance be concerned with problem children alone?" The answer, clearly, is "No," when the word "guidance" is changed to "teaching." "Has vocational education a place in the elementary school?" Special abilities and interests should be recognized, but probably little time should be used in developing special skills for specific vocations. "Is guidance accomplished most efficiently through individual treatment or within the group?" There is no "best way" in which guidance is accomplished. "Should there be special training in guidance required of the elementary teacher?" The writer assumes that every teacher

should have some special training in techniques of guidance.

With the possible exception of the child's parent, no single person has greater influence on personality development than the classroom teacher. She welcomes the help of the psychologist, psychometrist, visiting teacher, social worker, pediatrician, psychiatrist, and the array of other specialists whose function lies not in classroom teaching but nevertheless in the assurance of desirable child development. Specialists are resource persons available to teachers to help them in technical matters. The boundary lines of duty are not specifically defined for the specialist. Nevertheless, it is generally agreed that a specialist never relieves the classroom teacher of the central responsibility of guidance but helps to analyze and interpret the facts gathered and to plan a therapeutic attack leading to more desirable adjustment. At least three characteristics are prominent of the typical guidance programs in action in the elementary school: (1) emphasis upon need for coördination of school personnel; (2) coöperation of community agencies and the home; and (3) acceptance of the homeroom teacher as the pivot of the guidance program.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. Choose an elementary school with which you are most familiar and describe briefly the presence or absence of a point of view of guidance.
2. What would you suggest to promote harmony between a teacher who wishes to assume supreme authority over the guidance of her pupils and an employed specialist in the school who assumes she should have supreme authority over all guidance aspects of the same school?
3. Describe the difference between a teacher who is imbued with the guidance point of view and a teacher without it.
4. Should a student preparing to teach in the elementary school be required to complete a college course in Introduction to Guidance, or should subject matter taught in such a course be integrated with a course in Curriculum?
5. Is guidance more closely related to the field of psychology or the field of education?

CHAPTER 2

The Need for Guidance in the Elementary School

From a Teacher's Journal: Judy's poor social and emotional adjustment worried me. She seemed so alone, helpless, afraid, shy, nervous, and unhappy. She didn't have any friends. The children in the room ignored her. When it came her turn to read a favorite poem in our morning opening exercises, her face looked frozen or paralyzed. She was tense and frightened, and we could scarcely understand what she was saying.

In this note from a teacher's journal we have a picture of the emotional process at work. Can learning proceed satisfactorily when emotional blocks of this nature persist? In this situation we have an example of the disruptive and disorganizing character of emotional disturbance. A determination of the causes of such disturbances is essentially a basic element in the guidance process. From all appearances this child is and has been maladjusted because of excessive deprivation, frustration, and insecurity, which have denied her an opportunity to fulfill the basic needs of her personality. This is, of course, an assumption; to prove it would require additional diagnosis and observation of the patient—a further task in the guidance process. The therapy leading to correction may involve reeducation, a readjustment

to a changed environment, or perhaps even a consideration of new and worthy behavior goals. Regardless of the therapy employed, the person who administers it must have a basic understanding of the guidance process, a recognition of the types of emotional behavior which usually appear, and some idea, at least, of the state of emotional maturity as well as the conditions by which this maturity may be attained.

Doubtless, complete adjustment is a state never attained. Fortunately, we can be happy without being entirely adjusted. Happiness itself is usually obtained in the activities we pursue to satisfy some personal need. The continuous attempts at adjustment require continuous reevaluation of experience and the reformulation of attitudes and value concepts. Maladjustment itself is not as serious as is the lack of progress toward adjustment.

Guidance toward emotional maturity "means offering experiences that will orient children in the physical world, in the social world, in time, and in aesthetic, ethical, and spiritual realities as far as we have discovered them. It means helping children to organize their experiences into generalizations, attitudes, and value concepts. It implies granting them opportunities for significant action in relation to their needs, attitudes, and emerging purposes. It means granting them increasing responsibility to direct their own behavior, and it implies challenging them with the world's unsolved problems as a means of evoking purpose" (17:38).

GUIDANCE AND THE SATISFACTION OF BASIC NEEDS

The child has basic needs which can be satisfied by certain knowledges, skills, attitudes, and functional relationships; that is, satisfactory mental organization or assimilation of experiences. The rise of these needs results from the structure of the organism, the processes of society, and the nature of the child's experiences. A child's behavior is patterned in accordance with what his past experience has taught him to be correct. The task of guidance, therefore, is to provide those life experiences which will help the child to feel a state of harmony between his vital needs and

the environment in which he must live. When the child has already formed unsatisfactory behavioral patterns, guidance procedures must help him toward modification. The teacher, as counselor and guide, has solved the most important phase of a task of diagnosis when the answer to this question can be found: "What is the child seeking by his present behavior?"

There is universal agreement that each individual has two general classes of needs: (1) primary basic tissue needs, such as hunger, thirst, muscular activity, etc., and (2) acquired—social or personality—needs, such as affection, belongingness, achievement, etc. It is an interesting question whether or not the acquired needs rest upon and derive their energy from basic tissue needs. Nevertheless, a need is strong when it will cause the individual to act—whatever its origin. There is no standard classification of needs, and the lists vary greatly in length from author to author according to convenience. The three-fold classification by Prescott (28) illustrates such a convenience; he lists physiological, social, and ego or integrative needs. Typical of the physiological needs are food, thirst, sex, rest, elimination, adjustment to temperature. Illustrative of the social needs are feelings of belongingness, need for affection, need for achievement, need for recognition, need for security; of ego needs are self-esteem, self-respect, and belief in self.

GUIDANCE AND THE SO-CALLED "PROBLEM CHILD"

Who is a problem child? Unfortunately, no all-inclusive definition or description can be given as an answer. The most experienced teacher is frequently unable to diagnose an apparent problem as being real. A conscientious teacher will strive continuously to acquire an understanding of the child which will include an understanding of motives (needs), an understanding of common and possible behaviors resulting in attempts to adjust, and an understanding of the optimum environment which prevents maladjustment. With the original question still indefinitely answered, let us proceed to further consideration by examining

atypical and typical behavior problems reported by teachers in educational literature, and continue from there with some definite criteria to be applied.

Behavioral Problems Reported by Classroom Teachers

The following excerpts from educational literature describing problem children have been selected to illustrate current concepts of problem behavior. These cases emphasize personality rather than academic-learning difficulties, although personality maladjustment always accompanies poor school achievement, and vice versa. Note that school achievement includes more than mere academic achievement. Some of these cases are atypical, and some are of the less serious adjustment type. A classroom teacher is quite likely to encounter both of these categories.

CASE NO. 1.

A nine-year-old boy in the fourth grade was reported in the autumn as being a bully, liar, and thief, and subject to temper tantrums. His school-work was poor and the teacher thought he had a low I.Q. She frankly dreaded the coming year. He was a constant talker in the classroom and would not stay in his seat. The teacher visited the home. She found that both parents worked. The father was free Saturday and Sunday. The only time he spent with the boy was two hours on each of his free days. These hours he spent trying to teach the boy to play the flute. There was another child in the family, a boy of eight, who was no problem at home or in school (10:71).

CASE NO. 2.

A shy girl, aged twelve in grade VI, was reported in the autumn as never participating in class and "freezing" when spoken to. The case study discovered a mother recently committed to a hospital for the mentally ill and a diagnosis by the school doctor in the case of the child "perhaps incipient dementia praecox." Appointments were made with a psychiatrist at a mental hygiene clinic. . . . Careful plans were laid to bolster the child's self-confidence by very gradual steps. The May report quotes the surprising remark of one of the child's playmates, "Why, she was just like the others" (10:72).

CASE No. 3

A thirteen-year-old girl, with an I.Q. of 81, is in the fourth grade. She suffers from malnutrition. She attends only four or five days a month. The city social worker says the girl is the brightest member of the family and must stay at home to care for the moronic mother who is pregnant. The whole family lived one week on potatoes, and only potatoes (10:73).

CASE No. 4.

An eight-year-old boy in grade II was given to his mother when his parents were divorced. The father has remarried and departed. The boy is failing all subjects. He is habitually tardy. He belongs to a gang that steals. The mother is a prostitute and frankly wants the boy committed to a reformatory because he is in her way (10:74).

CASE No. 5.

Terry is ten. He's always done good work, and he's in the fifth grade, but for the past three months he has attended only two half-sessions. He was out with an infected throat for two weeks, and ever since he has been scared to come back. He has got as far as the classroom door several times, but he gets so sick at his stomach or so panic-stricken that we've had to let him leave. His records show that he found it hard to start school, that he cried a lot the first few weeks, and his mother remembers that, but he's been no problem since until this happened. Two of his teachers thought he was over-conscientious for such a young child, and he has always kept to himself a good deal, but he does have some friends and his mother says he plays with the neighborhood children. The parents are cooperative and have done everything they know to return him to school. We hesitate to excuse him indefinitely. What should the school do? (17:38).

When Is a Problem a Problem?

A problem is a problem when a need, a goal, and an obstacle which cannot be removed are present. The task of guidance lies not so much in finding the problem as in recognizing its seriousness. The following criteria are offered as a possible approach to the consideration of individual cases:

1. Into how many spheres of the child's life does the problem reach? This is sometimes referred to as the area of the effect. It is helpful to know whether a tired child is tired only when in the schoolroom or if he is tired at home, too. More specifically, does he become tired only when he is confronted with a difficult task or perhaps after he has been reprimanded?

2. Is a timid child timid only in the presence of strangers, or is he timid in the schoolroom? Generally speaking, the wider the area, the more difficult and serious the problem.

3. Does the problem persist too long? Perhaps it has, yet has become only recently noticeable; rather frequently, problems exist for a long time without detection. With the exception of a severe traumatic experience, problems of long duration are generally more serious than those of recent occurrence. Usually a recent problem is easier to diagnose. A sudden change in behavior is ordinarily a danger sign.

4. Does the child respond to obvious common-sense methods? How much assistance does the child make toward modification? Does he respond to ordinary techniques of treatment? If not, the problem is likely to be serious. Another indication of seriousness is that the attitudes seem to be out of keeping even with the normal disturbance to be expected. If the problem brings the child satisfactions which he is unwilling to relinquish, the solution of adjustment is difficult. In some cases, when alternate desirable sources of satisfaction are available, the child refuses to accept them.

5. How deeply is the child affected by his problem? Seriousness exists when the child seems to be tied to a certain type of behavior and repeats it over and over again. Lengthy and intense treatment is usually required for a child who has feelings of frequent resentment and inadequacy. It is well to remember, too, that symptoms are not always indicative of the depth of a problem. The more evident symptoms are phobias, compulsions, panic states, complete withdrawal from social contacts, epilepsy, juvenile paresis, encephalitis, and head trauma.

6. What type of treatment will be required? Will the requirements for treatment include medical, psychological, and psychi-

atric treatment? If the problem can be removed through classroom procedures, it is obviously not as serious as it would be if psychiatric treatment were necessary. In any case, environmental changes are not as difficult to initiate as it is to change pupil and parental attitudes.

Levels of Responsibility for Guidance of Pupils

Regardless of the seriousness of the problem, as long as the child remains in the school environment, the central responsibility for guidance lies with the classroom teacher. The psychologist, psychiatrist, pediatrician, social worker, or special school counselor can do little without her cooperation. As long as the child is not taken out of the school environment, the aid of all specialists should be considered as an aid to the teacher. It is to their teacher that pupils will go to obtain help, not only in educational matters but also in more personal problems. Guidance is so intimately integrated with classroom activities, that is, the curriculum (in reality the child's real life) of the school, that a specialist should never consider his authority above or separated from that of the teacher. This means, of course, that guidance is not limited to one or two pupils singled out for special attention, but applies to all pupils.

No one should know as much about her pupils as the teacher. She should be informed about the level of their ability, their achievement, their past educational experiences, their home conditions, and their community. The teacher learns to know her pupils through conferences with specialists, administrators, and parents. When a pupil is removed from the classroom for special treatment, whether it be medical, psychiatric, or subject-remedial, the teacher should know what kind of treatment is being administered and the results of diagnosis and evaluation, in order to integrate the child's classroom life in accordance with, and in support of, what is being done by specialists.

The teacher cannot expect help with those types of problems or symptoms to which all children are subjected. As mentioned before, some of these are nervous habits, fears, speech retardation, overdependence, thumb-sucking, temper tantrums, overactivity, nail-biting, sensitiveness, bashfulness, and tics.

GUIDANCE AND OVERCOMING UNDESIRABLE CONDITIONS OF HOME ENVIRONMENT

The Effects of Poverty

The effects of poverty on the mental hygiene of childhood have been most strikingly noted in studies of juvenile delinquency. Delinquents are likely to come from poverty-stricken homes in which a parent or brother or sister is also delinquent. The dreary slums, with their crowded homes and crowded streets, their mixture of races, their general poverty-stricken condition, produce a high percentage of delinquent children.

There are dangers at both economic extremes to the mental health of children. In wealthy homes, for example, parents may overindulge or overprotect their children, while in the poverty-stricken home children may be neglected, deprived, or rejected. However, wealth is no assurance against these latter hazards, and poverty is no protection against the former. Symptoms of poverty may be found in deprivation of housing, food, and clothing, or perhaps in the absence of books, magazines, or television or radio in the home. Such conditions of poverty impair health, security, and general well-being.

Hatred, jealousy, and prejudice, all symptoms of maladjustment, may be developed and maintained because of economic disadvantage. Poverty makes it more difficult to give the child a sense of security. It is possible, however, with kind and intelligent parents, to make a good home for a child even under economic handicaps. All children in the lower economic stratum are not maladjusted.

Individuals in our modern industrialized culture place a high value upon good employment. Holding a good job affords economic security and carries with it a symbol of success which in turn supports a feeling of independence, initiative, and responsibility. On the other hand, a prolonged unemployment is not only certain to cultivate changes in the self-esteem of a parent's personality, but of the children's as well. Unemployment is often accompanied by a sense of guilt, with a growing sense of inadequacy or inferiority. Frequently this promotes conflicts between

spouses or between parents and children. Unsatisfactory parent-child relationships represent a host of the most frequent hazards to mental health.

The Effects of the Family Circle

The basic drives within the child during his preschool years can operate only within the framework established by the older and more experienced persons surrounding him. The influence of the home on the adjustment of the child, therefore, cannot be overemphasized. It is within the family that the biological, racial, and sociopsychological forces converge to form the habits, attitudes, and ideas which are the foundations of the personality. The adequacy of a child's adjustment, including his sense of responsibility, coöperation, and concentration—in brief, his emotional and social maturity—all are unequivocally related to experiences within the familial circle. Quarreling, bickering, and overt violence between mother and father are serious hazards, but even more serious are the illegal or legal antisocial or anti-moral behavior of parents. From these patterns of conduct the growing child constructs his own habits of behavior.

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The Effects of Family Rejection

A child is rejected when he is not wanted and thus is unloved by one or both parents. The concept of rejection should be thought of in terms of degree; that is, partial or complete rejection. Even these categories have qualities of degree, to the extent that diagnosis is difficult because children who are not rejected may show some of the same symptoms as the child who is. A child who, for example, is strongly disliked at times, and yet is still loved by his parents, should probably not be thought of as a rejected child at all. An example of partial rejection may be cited in the case of a parent who, through the rationalizing process, refused to grant the child's wishes because this was considered an excellent technique for building character.

What are the typical reactions and attitudes of parents who reject their children? Direct and complete procedures of rejection are easy to detect. The mother, for example, may be openly frank in acknowledging that she wishes the child had never

been born, and she may as early as possible cast him on others for emotional, financial, and social support. Other parents may make direct attempts to get rid of the child by desertion, placing him in an institution, or putting him in a boarding home or military school. Usually, however, parents are more subtle in their behavior. Some parents, for example, are not necessarily conscious that they do not basically love the child, that they have no faith in him, and that they do not want him the way he is. These parents would find it difficult to believe and disturbing to their mental health if they became aware that they do not accept their offspring. They know such behavior does not receive sanction in our culture, and thus an acknowledgment of their real feeling toward the child would gravely interfere with their self-esteem.

Generally, the justification of an attitude of child rejection, with its resultant behavior, needs some kind of rationalizing process. For example, parents must persuade themselves, their friends, and others that the reason for their rejection lies somewhere within the child himself. A mother may actually drag her youngster from one doctor to another with a demand that there be found some glandular or nervous disturbance which is the real culprit of personality disturbance. In other words, she must in some way justify her feelings on the basis of the child's imperfections.

Other than direct, outright neglect of the child or desertion, let us examine some of the more subtle methods for child rejection. Starting with the more severe behaviorisms, we may mention the method of harsh treatment. The parent is very strict, uses continued nagging and criticism, is unduly suspicious, continually points out shortcomings, and never hesitates to administer severe physical punishment. In other words, the child is emotionally ostracized and tolerated only as a matter of duty, and all under the guise of a rationalized motive that it is for his own good. Parents who have never accepted their role in society because of a poor family background, or because of feelings of inferiority, may find it difficult to accept their children. It is possible, too, for parents to make bad marital adjustments; the antagonistic feeling toward the mate may be transferred to the child. In some cases the mother has strong emotional condi-

tioning from the period of pregnancy and childbirth, or perhaps a mother who did not want children now sees in her child a symbol for moral and legal obligations to the child's father. The coming of children may have meant loss of money, or perhaps an economic struggle, loss of status, and loss of independence. It has frequently meant that mothers have had to give up their professional career or further education. In short, the mother may have found childbearing and child rearing an irksome process. These items taken separately or in total may all be a basis for rejection of the child.

In addition to the causes of rejection mentioned above, there are still others to be considered. Among them is the physical appearance of the child. Consciously or unconsciously, a mother may reject her homely daughter in preference to her more beautiful child. Then there is the case of the son of the athletic father who is rejected because of his physical frailty. Nor should we fail to mention the child who feels he has lost the love of his mother because of his overweight. Many a child has probably been rejected because of his intelligence. The dull child, born of brilliant parents, for instance, often feels rejection because of his inability to achieve. Occasionally, too, a bright child is rejected because his intelligence surpasses that of a parent. Children have been rejected because of differences in moral standards, because of immature fathers and mothers who are still dependent upon their own parents, because of the feeling of insecurity of a stepparent, and even because the child is believed to threaten the relations between husband and wife.

A rejected child may make desperate attempts to get affection from neighbors, teachers, or playmates. It is typical for such a child to use aggressive behavior in demanding gifts and favors, or to be negativistic, quarrelsome, rebellious, and untruthful. He has deep-seated feelings of worthlessness that may be expressed in fear or seclusiveness. He may have developed an emotional coldness and a wish to retaliate against people for the hostility shown him by his parents. He may use awkward methods of testing the loyalty of those who are friendly to him. Rejection strikes directly at the basic needs of security, self-assurance, belongingness, affection. Rejection in early life may

so rob the child of the needed parental emotional support so essential to his well-being that he may never develop a healthy concept of himself. His adjustment often takes the form of such antisocial behavior as stealing, lying, destructiveness, and truancy.

The Effects of Overprotection and Favoritism

A child is said to be overprotected when he is constantly cared for, shielded, sometimes dominated, and sometimes extended special privileges to avoid indirect clashing of wills. The mother spends a great deal of time with the child, may even sleep with him for many years, and with meticulous care bandages every scratch and calls the physician upon the slightest excuse. She plays with the child and at times amuses him so that he cannot play with other children. He is watched carefully during those hours he is privileged to play with only the "nicest" children. He is never permitted to take the risks that most children in their normal play and daily life routine must take. The mother may even walk to school with him when other children of his same age are walking alone.

The causes of overprotection have never been satisfactorily isolated or verified. Analysis of case studies, however, seems to indicate that the causes considered below are usually valid. It is not unusual, for example, to find a mother overprotective because her child has come to her after a long period of childless life. The period of desiring a child may have been one of anticipation and frustration caused by sterility, miscarriages, or death of infants. Now she must be constantly on guard lest something disastrous befall her child.

Children may be overprotected because of a physical handicap or an illness which has frightened the mother. The mother may have suffered emotional impoverishment in early life, or perhaps currently she lives in social isolation even to the point of having no common interests with her husband. In some cases, the mother may overcompensate a feeling of guilt based on the lack of desire for a child as contrasted with a strong desire by the father. Parents who have failed to secure their own vocational aims may project these aims upon their children in order to assure a cul-

mination of desire, even though it be vicarious. The child, in turn, unfamiliar in his early years with his own potentialities, follows the plan of his parents docilely, only to become frustrated as an adolescent or adult. Some parents have suffered a lack of parental affection in childhood, so they stimulate overattachment and continued dependence in their own children. Continued dependence on the mother is flattering and enhances the ego; for this reason, some parents continue domination and control just as long as possible.

It is a difficult task to judge when a child should be protected and when he should be permitted to show his independence. Certainly it is dangerous to permit a young child to cross a street of heavy traffic unaccompanied by an adult, and it would be using poor judgment, indeed, to allow him to brandish the kitchen butcher knife or run with pointed scissors. It is to be hoped that if parents are made aware of their tendency to "overprotect," they may be less likely to be guilty of it. Certainly parents should be made to feel more comfortable about their children's potentialities; and if they exert every effort to maintain the mental and physical health of their offspring, they will feel less concern about averting disasters projected into the future.

The favored child is one who is preferred by one or both of his parents at the expense of his brother or sister. He is usually a selfish child, who exploits his parents and demonstrates excessive affection to fulfill his own wishes. Such behavior often results in unhealthy attitudes of the child toward marriage and parental relations. Favoritism to some degree is present in every home where there is more than one child. The effects are not serious, however, unless a strong difference exists between the parents' attitude toward, and treatment of, the child.

Undesirable Sibling Relationships

The teacher, as counselor, will always want to know the sib position of each one of her pupils because this factor has tremendous significance on personality. The handicaps, assets, or animosities accrued in the elementary school child are intricately related to his unique role in family life. A teacher recognizes that

it is impossible for a family to rear more than one child and not provide a somewhat different environment, both economic and social, for each. Often it is the home situation, rather than innate differences in temperament, that produces two siblings who differ considerably in their behavioral patterns. Although it is important to know whether a pupil is an intermediate or a youngest child, these facts alone are not enough.

We can list no absolute standards for the interpretation of family relationships. The results of studies on specific personality characteristics of children in relation to their order of birth in the family have been contradictory because every family situation in which there are two or more is unique in itself. The uniqueness of the problem presents a challenge to the teacher to use her powers of observation and ingenuity to obtain the facts of existing relationships and their effect on behavioral patterns.

Broken Homes

The broken home may be described as one in which there has been a disruption in the normal family organization because of death, divorce, unemployment of the father, or employment outside the home by the mother. A marked chronic disruption of the normal relationships of the father and mother may also have etiological significance for a broken home, depending, of course, upon the seriousness of the existing incompatibility. Although they should not be considered as a necessary cause, it is generally believed that broken homes are a fertile soil for childhood personality maladjustments.

Although emotional growth of the child in our society is closely associated with family life, the existence of many variables makes it impossible to predict the final effect of broken homes on all children, especially in the case of divorced parents. Divorce can be the primary cause of child maladjustment, but in some cases intolerable family situations—quarreling, violence, and conflict—are equally potent as causes of marked personality disturbances. The final effect on the child depends much upon his previous state of adjustment, on the reactions of others toward the divorce, and on the physical and other environmental circumstances. The dual-guardianship arrangements which follow the divorce

are often a poor preparation for adult life. The vacation-visitation system frequently results in parental indulgence in the form of gifts or artificial attention, and sooner or later the child finds he is a victim of manipulation between two jealous parents. He may learn, too, to use the occasion as an opportunity for exploitation toward selfish goals. These situations may be found as exceptions; nevertheless, they are important enough for anyone interested in the child's welfare to investigate. We are certain that no major influences are present which are not also found in undivorced families, and a child may lack emotional support from one or both parents in families where divorce has never been contemplated. Even though unnecessary, the broken home caused by divorce or desertion may be a breeding ground for insecurity and unhappiness and thus a potential source for serious personality maladjustment. The situation is especially bad for elementary school children because they are old enough to feel the discord deeply and yet young enough to be still dependent upon both parents.

Improper Home Training

The culture into which a child is born determines the framework within which his morals are eventually formed. Although they may seem too trivial and simple or too low in the scale of values to merit much attention by the community, there are embodied in the average parent a concrete ideal and a set of values which are in due time inculcated in the child. From these, other ideals, aims, or goals may emerge, only to be transmitted to the next generation. The ideal held by parents may be too complex or too high for normal adjustment, and the result is an eventual conflict between parent and child. Many families advocate certain standards but live according to other criteria. Children find it difficult to live under the code of absolutes themselves, and because they fail to behave in accordance with the accepted moral code they may develop a sense of guilt which in some cases grows into a neurotic tendency.

Corporal punishment, a form of child control often used against children for undesirable behavior, too frequently gives children little opportunity to develop self-control and self-direction. However, parents should not accept the doctrine that the

child should never be thwarted or repressed. Thwarting and conflict are unavoidable; it is a necessary counterpart of emotional maturity to discipline the impulses. Wise guidance requires that the conditions be arranged so that the child will secure that form of discipline he needs most. This requires a middle path between rigid and fixed outside control and no control at all.

Included under the topic of improper home training should be the parental custom of giving rewards and attempting to bribe the child into good behavior. Using the fear motive and threatening the child with a visit from the policeman are equally damaging. Note that the reward in question here is one given in the form of a bribe. The other type of a reward, that is, arranging the conditions so that the response is satisfying, constitutes one of the best ways of securing desirable behavior. Direction through sympathetic, even, just, rational, and consistent treatment develops a feeling of security (knowing what to expect) and eventually encourages self-control. It is this kind of treatment that wise parents use in creating necessary routine habits of cleanliness, proper care of room and property, and sharing and coöperating in the responsibilities of home life.

Parents should be aware of the interests and capacities of their children, but should not attempt to dictate their activities. During the elementary school years it is easy for the parent to thrust upon the child all sorts of prejudices, conceptions, values, and ambitions that the child accepts wholeheartedly only to find that in later life he must give them up because of new education, different interests, or lack of capacity. The parent makes a mistake in attempting to dictate the child's future vocation in terms of his own preference or frustrated ambition.

GUIDANCE AND OVERCOMING UNDESIRABLE CONDITIONS OF SCHOOL LIFE

Unsuitable Curriculum

There are many people who still believe that the chief purpose of the elementary school is to teach the skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic. They regard the mind of the child as a storehouse, a granary, where during the elementary school years a

myriad of facts and items of information should be stored to be used during the periods of adolescence and adulthood. Furthermore, there are teachers and parents alike who believe that the worth of children's education is to be judged according to a child's ability to learn skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic and to store in his mind the items of subject matter through verbal instruction and classroom textbook. These points of view and the methods used in accordance with them are hazardous to the mental health of children. Millions of children are not endowed for high academic achievements; thus the constant demand for it by the teacher is certain to develop degrees of frustration and permanent maladjustment. There has been too much emphasis on the measurement of what the child knows rather than on what he understands and the way he behaves. We have far too little emphasis on the premium of human relationships, on how to get along successfully with others. Education in the elementary school must be aimed directly at lifting the quality of living. This embraces a far broader and deeper purpose than the mere acquisition of subject matter.

A well-trained teacher regards the child as something more than a potential learner of knowledge and skills. Rather, she regards him as a dynamic personality possessed with attitudes, habits, and ideas relating to every aspect of his life: health, socioemotional adjustment, and intellect. The final test of the school's effectiveness is a consideration of the question, "How does the child behave?" Behavior is not dependent upon what the child knows, but rather upon what he believes, upon his attitudes, ideals, and values. In other words, elementary education cannot be limited to the classroom and textbooks; it must concern itself with life in the home, community, and environmental background. A failure to correlate aims of the curriculum directly with life outside the school is a definite mental-health hazard.

Overcompetition

Society is essentially competitive. It has been mentioned elsewhere that a child's personality, intellect, or achievement has meaning only as it is compared to others of his chronological

age. Even if it were desirable, we cannot escape competition, not even in a controlled situation such as a school classroom.

Through guidance, then, we must help the child to adjust under competitive situations and to avoid as much as possible the hazardous results of overcompetition. Overcompetition in the classroom emphasizes a person-to-person struggle for role, status, and reward, thus, in turn, emphasizing the egotistical rather than the sympathetic (coöperative) elements of personality. Constant pressure for success, especially in achieving goals that are too high or too low, often results in such forms of maladjustment as resistance, rebellion, apathy, passive docility, loss of initiative, and withdrawal in the form of fantasy. It is not uncommon to observe such forms of adjustment when a child is encouraged to achieve his aims and goals through competition with his classmates rather than with his own levels of aspiration.

Lack of Provision for Individual Differences

Although there are some elementary schools which seem to be doing everything possible to make children alike, thus far there is little evidence that they have succeeded. These schools put the same group of pupils in the same room under the same teacher, who uses uniform and standard methods of lesson presentation by adhering closely to the textbook. Furthermore, pupils are required to complete the same assignment from the same page each day, and all pupils are expected to master the same subject matter so they can give the same response to the same examination questions. Under such a system does the teacher assume that all pupils are alike? Or does she assume that each pupil is different and that they all can be forced to become alike? An affirmative answer to either question may jeopardize the mental health of the child.

The curriculum must not only be adjusted to individual intellectual capacity but to emotional differences as well. A uniform curriculum for all pupils will result in bright pupils becoming bored and slow pupils becoming dispirited and apathetic. Personality adjustments of both may be similar and equally disastrous. A recognition of individual differences requires a knowl-

edge of the effect of constitutional determinants of mental capacity and of social and cultural background.

Slow children are needlessly harassed by standards of adult perfection which they can never reach. Fortunately, modern elementary schools are now making an attempt to adjust the curriculum by selecting activities which have a functional value, so that each child can meet with at least a fair proportion of success in things he attempts to accomplish. Because the physical and social maturity of each pupil is respected, there is provided a large variety of activities, a great freedom of movement, and wide facilities for varied learning, such as a library, general craft and art materials, various club activities, and opportunities for games, dances, music, and viewing of motion pictures. Every pupil is, as he should be, considered intrinsically valuable regardless of his mental and social capacities.

Unsuitable Administrative Practices

Administrative practice that requires teachers to teach 40 to 55 pupils, as compared to the 25 and 30 of a few years ago, may endanger mental health. Small classrooms filled with furniture, especially with long rows of desks fastened to the floor, encourage a "sit and study" procedure of teaching. Some schools are finding it necessary to hold classes on auditorium stages, in small supply rooms, in new rooms partitioned from the hallways. These conditions restrict the freedom of movement so necessary for every elementary school child if he is to develop his independent sense of conduct. Furthermore, under such restricted atmosphere, the teacher usually demands "pin-drop quiet" and absolute adherence to rigid rules of behavior.

Methods of evaluating and reporting progress are closely related to the status of mental health. Letter grades supposedly define the status of a pupil in relation to a fixed standard, whether it be an arbitrary one determined by the teacher or one decided by class, local, or national norm. These marks may especially imperil mental health when they are determined by results of examinations of subject matter, factual material, or as a representation of the pupils' status in a distribution of scores. When marks are used to compare one child's work with another,

the less capable pupil will lose self-confidence, security, and incentive, while the brighter child is likely to develop a false sense of superiority and overconfidence.

The graded school and nonpromotion system are likewise hazardous to elementary school pupils. In the first six grades there should be no pupil who is 14 years of age and over. Such a pupil is probably an adolescent and neither enjoys working with less mature pupils nor is interested in the activities offered. He is conspicuous, insecure; feels inferior and unhappy. In any grade, there should not be found a child who is more than two years older than the average of the group. Such a child is different from the rest of the group and will have no sense of belonging with the other pupils. Equally handicapped is the child who is two years younger than the average age for the group. He can seldom compete physically; he is infrequently up to the average in emotional maturity. The graded elementary school represents an attempt at permanent homogeneous grouping which is not only an impossible procedure but also an untenable administrative practice from the standpoint of mental health. A more suitable method of grouping must eventually be established.

Equally untenable from the mental-hygiene point of view is the old-fashioned, outmoded, mechanized platoon system where pupils must adjust to a different teacher for a different subject several times during the day. Regardless of the almost ridiculous attempts to "functionalize" the course of study in such a system, the final result is still a subject-matter-organized curriculum "dressed in a new suit of clothes." How can any teacher come to know and understand the numerous pupils she must see each day? How can the pupils share in planning the objectives and evaluating the process? How can the total learning be properly integrated with the total life of the pupil? Under such an administrative procedure, units of work, centers of interest, or even broad areas of experience are impossible.

Teacher's Personality and Methods of Class Control

Mental illness of the teacher is contagious and may be transmitted to the pupils almost as surely as any other communicable

disease. A nervous and erratic teacher is likely to be teaching pupils who have acquired the same symptoms; a teacher who is weary and disappointed in life will have unanimated and listless pupils.

Certain methods of class control are likewise deleterious to the mental health of pupils. The most detrimental of these methods may be listed as (1) lack of attention to pupil needs, (2) improper use of praise and reproof, (3) rigidity or laxity of discipline. Lewin, Lippitt, and White (23) found as typical of an autocratically controlled group of pupils the characteristics of hostility, aggression, or apathy. The laissez-faire group was typically dull, lifeless, or submissive. Different teachers who handled these groups of pupils autocratically found similar responses developing within the group, while these same teachers, after changing their method, found their pupils also changing in behavior. A normal child is eager, happy, friendly, and responsive, and is motivated by vivid interests. He can develop normally when he is free enough from rigid control that his emotional expressions suffer a minimum of interference. This is closely related to a modern concept of discipline.

GUIDANCE AND MAINTAINING GOOD DISCIPLINE

Modern discipline takes into account the determinants of behavior. A child acts in accordance with some inner drive or need. Behind the spitball to the neck of the boy near him is a motive; behind standing in the middle of a group and shouting is a motive. There can be no discipline unless the teacher "knows why." To punish a child because he needs to act does not remove the need; it increases it. Children deviate in their behavior because they feel a need for attention, for recognition, for a sense of belongingness; for affection, for success, for security. The teacher as guide will attempt to do all in her power to see that needs are satisfied in a socially accepted fashion, and thereby aid the child to live harmoniously with himself and with others. She will strive to guide him into self-regulating conduct so he can accept himself and others and treat his fellows with respect and dignity. She will guide him to understand that the major

satisfaction in life must be obtained by waiting and working. Above all, she will help him to realize that the disciplined life is a *self-controlled life*.

Guidance and Discipline in Today's Education

A truly disciplined person can both submit to outside authority and inside (self-control) authority. The need for independence during this process is sometimes overtly expressed in the struggle between inner and outer conflict. It is the natural course of development to submit first to authority; but ultimately, true discipline comes largely from within. A self-disciplined person is an individual with preferences, interests, and values of his own which can be expressed with independence.

The teacher's philosophy and technique of control largely determine the teacher-pupil relationship in the classroom, and we have evidence to indicate that these, in turn, reflect the quality of what we commonly call discipline. We have repeated that the ideal condition is self-discipline, and we have extended this term to group self-discipline. In developing self-discipline, the teacher in no way relinquishes her authority. She still controls the environment—the social climate—and thus sets the frame of reference within which experiences must be chosen. However, in group self-discipline her control is shared (at least the pupils feel that it is shared), and as a result of the sharing she finds outward, forceful, authoritative control unnecessary. It is encouraging to note that with skillful guidance by the teacher even young children can become aware of their interaction patterns, and as a result of this awareness can consciously control these patterns through self-discipline.

GUIDANCE AND DEVELOPING DESIRABLE ATTITUDES

It is convenient to regard attitude as a state of readiness to behave in a particular manner. A teacher who understands a child's attitude also understands his behavior. Attitude influences a child's overt conduct even more than the verbal expression of opinion. Attitudes are learned, not acquired, and are usually accompanied by some degree of emotion. Furthermore, a child

may have a range from specific attitudes and habits to general attitudes and behavior. General attitudes emerge from a wide variety of specific and concrete experiences. These experiences, however, may themselves result in the acquisition of a ready-made attitude, especially in the realm of institutional or cultural laws and mores. Attitudes are important in that they are influential in directing and motivating behavior. They are, therefore, closely related to the objectives of education. For example, the development of common attitudes is necessary before we can expect to prevent disease, fires, and accidents, and to foster obedience to law, honesty, and the acceptance of social changes necessitated by scientific developments.

From the standpoint of mental hygiene, attitudes are significant for personality integration, for moral behavior, and for physical health. Certain general attitudes undoubtedly provide life with the core of meaning by which behavior is governed. In his effort at adjustment, a child will seek models and ideals or relate himself to certain stereotypes which he finds approved by society. He also learns that certain acts are looked upon with approval and others with disapproval. Questions of right and wrong are given emotional tone by adults who approve or disapprove; thus, the child forms a basis for his moral behavior. Attitudes, then, supply the code by which the behavior of children (and adults) is judged; they supply the principles on the basis of which choices are made; they provide meaning to life experiences; and finally, they help the individual plan his future goals of behavior.

The setting by which attitudes are developed may well include the relationships and experiences in the home. Let us use as an illustration a child's overtly sensitive attitude toward others. Such an attitude may begin by acts of rejection toward one child and favoritism toward another. The favored child receives an ice-cream cone; the rejected receives none. The favored child is given more attractive and expensive clothes. The unfavored child is accosted by such unfavorable parental comparisons as "Billy, why can't you behave as nicely as your cousin?" "Your father always received good grades when he was a boy; I don't understand why you don't!" "The Smith children have such lovely manners. Why can't you be like them?"

Cultural attitudes are handed down from parent to child, and the child usually accepts them because he knows no others. Generally, parents enforce the pattern of attitudes expected by the community. Fortunately, something can be done about the development of attitudes, because they are learned rather than biologically inherited. Attitudes of open-mindedness, honesty, fair play, responsibility, sincerity, decency, independence, dependability, generosity, and social sensitivity can all be learned in the proper social setting under the guidance of an intelligent teacher. Above all it is the fundamental task of every teacher to develop desirable attitudes toward a democratic way of life. Four attitudes that are uniquely democratic are (1) respect for the individual, (2) devotion to associated effort and participation by all in carrying out coöperatively developed common purposes and concerns, (3) faith in the method of intelligence in human affairs, and (4) loyalty to the common welfare. Children learn democratic values only as they experience a democratic way of living in their homes, their school, and their community. Furthermore, such attitudes cannot be learned by talking about desirable human relations. The entire learning process should be characterized by group planning, lively discussion, broad participation in setting and executing purposes, and creative thinking. In such a setting the pupil should develop attitudes of courtesy, respect, and helpfulness toward others. The acquisition of facts and skills is subordinate and useful only as the pupil develops strong attitudes of respect for the dignity and worth of the individual.

GUIDANCE AND DEVELOPING CHARACTER AND DESIRABLE STANDARDS OF CONDUCT

Character is largely a matter of attitude—a disposition to act in specific situations, a reaction to ideas, beliefs, and values. Likes and dislikes become attached to specific persons and things, and from these eventually is formed a system of values. The concept of right and wrong is developed early in childhood in terms of the approval or disapproval of specific acts. Character derives its meaning from the total pattern of the individual. It cannot be isolated, pulled out, and held up for scrutiny or analyzed apart

from context and setting. An act is moral because it conforms to group manners, customs, folkways, and conduct, and at the same time accords with the individual's purpose or motive which meets his sense of right and wrong.

The real test of character is overt behavior for the common good, which gives the individual satisfaction when he acts unselfishly and wisely, and annoyance when he acts otherwise. Habits of good conduct should be established early through parental approval, but this type of conformity, which results largely from outside forces, should eventually be replaced by an inner desire or inclination to act because of benefits to social welfare.

Two of the most potent influences determining a child's morals are his home and neighborhood associates. Continuous strife at home, an atmosphere of tension and incompatibility between parents, accompanied by erratic or unduly severe discipline, develop uncertain and irregular feelings of security.

Proper home training is essential for the early establishment of right and wrong conduct. The very young child knows no standards of conduct other than those he has learned within his immediate family and the few friends selected by the family. Later, when the child finds discrepancies or conflicts in the standards of home, neighborhood, or school, difficulties of adjustment may arise.

Desirable character is formed only when pupils are given an opportunity to meet and solve their own problems, not problems superimposed on them by the teacher. Character education is an aspect of all learning, including the acquisition of facts as well as the child's attitudes toward subject matter, his teacher, his peers, and himself. The mere recognition of the moral worth of subject matter will add little to the formation of character unless some effect has been made upon the pupil's emotions.

SUMMARY

The child has basic needs which can be satisfied by certain knowledge, skills, attitudes, and functional relationships; that

is, satisfactory mental organization or assimilation of experience. The rise or presence of these needs results from the structure of the organism, the processes of society, and the nature of the child's experience. The general characteristics of all childhood needs may be listed thus: (1) All needs are linked with pleasant or unpleasant feelings; they play an important part in the process of striving to attain the goal or in failing to secure it. (2) The mode of behavior may be altered by the presence or the acquisition of habits, attitudes, and ideas. (3) The culture in which a child grows affects practically every personality need a child has; thus, his behavior is also affected. (4) It is possible for one need or combination of needs to crowd out all others temporarily.

The needs of a child may be classified according to (1) primary basic tissue needs, and (2) personal-social needs. More specifically, we may conclude that the need to achieve, the need for a feeling of independence, and the need for social approval can all be considered under the heading of a need for a feeling of adequacy. Closely integrated with these needs are those of affection and belongingness, which contribute to the feeling of security. It is a biological principle that all living organisms tend to maintain harmony; that is, equilibrium. Much of this endeavor to maintain harmony is in the form of overt activity, which in many cases is at the root of so-called "disciplinary" cases.

The term "adjustment" suggests an element of harmony with the world. The child may be happy without being completely adjusted. Where formerly guidance concerned itself with helping the child to adjust in any environment he found himself, it has now added to its philosophy the belief that the environment itself must be modified or changed so the child will find adjustment facilitated.

Hazards to mental health are discussed in this chapter under the headings of hazards (1) within the family circle, (2) of physical impairment and disease, (3) of community life, and (4) of school life. Among the hazards of home life are poverty, family rejection, favoritism, overprotection, the broken home, and inordinately high parental moral standards. Included under the general topic of hazards of physical well-being are physical

growth, disease, and injury and accident. The mental dangers of community life are discussed in terms of the cultural framework. Attention is given to both the positive and negative influence of environment on delinquent behavior. The mental hazards of school life include such topics as unsuitable environment for optimum physical health, unsuitable curriculum, overcompetition, lack of provision for individual differences, inappropriate administrative practices, the teacher's personality, and methods of class control. Modern discipline is an accepted social control in our present form of culture. The ideal disciplinarian is the teacher who can guide the child to becoming a self-regulating, self-controlled individual. The techniques of such guidance are found in discipline through affection, security, recognition, and self-esteem.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. Should a child be taught to adjust to his environment, or should the environment be modified to aid adjustment?
2. Which of the following adjustments were more difficult for you to make? Why? (a) Kindergarten to first grade, (b) sixth grade to seventh grade, (c) grade school to high school.
3. Describe the characteristics of the best adjusted 11-year-old child you know. Contrast these characteristics with the most maladjusted child you know of the same age.
4. In your description above, how many times have you made reference to basic needs? What are these needs?
5. How does proper guidance influence the quality of "social climate" within the classroom?
6. What are the elements in the adjustment process?
7. What, if any, are the possible aids a classroom teacher may give a child who is impaired in mental health because of home conditions?
8. What relationships have the following to guidance in the elementary schools: (a) folkways, (b) customs, (c) mores, (d) taboos? Include an example with each point you make.
9. Contrast the old with the modern concepts of discipline.
10. Outline the essential features of the role of the school in developing desirable attitudes.

CHAPTER 3

Studying the Child Through Informal Procedures

What Does the Teacher Need to Know About the Child?

What do teachers need to know about the child? They need to know everything about his present life, his past life, and as much as possible about the present and past life of the family. This is an objective at which we can aim, but one impossible to achieve. Fortunately, however, by an organized, systematized attack, and with the aid of tried techniques, we are now able to learn much more about the child than was the case a few years ago. At the risk of encouraging an atomistic approach to child study, we can recognize four areas of pupil growth: physical, emotional, social, and intellectual. Total growth is recognized as integration of all areas; and although each area may be subjected to special consideration and analysis, we cannot realize progress without reference to the other three. The child grows through constant interaction between himself and his environment; thus, to understand him thoroughly we need data concerning his personal needs and the needs of society in which he lives. Because of integration, a detailed classification of the data

needed to understand the child is impossible. Therefore, without an attempt to classify or to be all-inclusive, we shall list some of the more specific areas in which study must be made. In addition to such identifying data as name, date of birth, address, and sex, and the school attendance record of such information as date of enrollment, withdrawals, absence, and tardiness, we may begin with data concerning physical health. Teachers will want to know the facts concerned with health history, especially as it relates to communicable diseases, physical handicaps caused by disease, and dental data. They will want to know about the various physical aspects of the child's growth, posture, skin and hair, eyes, ears, nose and mouth, breath, throat, neck, chest, legs, and feet.

Knowledge of such intellectual (sometimes designated as psychological) data as general intelligence, specific abilities, critical thinking, and scholastic achievement, is important. These data are, of course, so closely related to the emotional and social influences that to call them exclusively intellectual is misleading and confusing. Data closely associated to the intellectual are those of a socioemotional nature. Some of these facts may be gathered by the use of formal tests, but many of them will have to be assembled through informal devices such as teacher-made tests and techniques. Anecdotal records, interviews, informal ratings, sociograms, case studies, logs and diaries, samples of work, recordings, and stenographic reports are being increasingly used by teachers to discover both socioemotional and intellectual factors.

Methods of Studying the Child

From an objective, impersonal, reliable, and valid point of view, tests are preferable to observation in gathering information about the child; yet their very objectivity and impersonal characteristics are their greatest weakness in studying the child as a dynamic human being. Although somewhat subjective, the method of direct observation of the child in real life action will give meaning to the data collected by formalized tests. Data from both sources are essential for complete understanding of

the child. The methods of studying the child as listed by Anderson (5) are presented in order from simplicity to complexity: incidental observation, biography, systematic observation, questionnaire, psychoanalysis, case history, direct measurement and simple tests, tests of complex functions, ratings, random and controlled experiment, control by statistical devices, and factor analysis. These methods can be roughly classified into two approaches: first, the approach of testing; and second, the approach of informal procedures, such as the biography, diary, questionnaire, nonstandardized rating, anecdotal record, interview, products of work, and case history. A third approach, that of projective techniques and related procedures, is considered by some authorities to be beyond the grasp of the classroom teacher. The writer, however, believes that they offer avenues of inspiration and experimentation and that no teacher is well prepared professionally without some information about them.

THE NONSTANDARDIZED PROCEDURES

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire is the most frequently used of all techniques in studying the child, not only because it is valuable as a method in itself, but because it may be used with other techniques such as autobiographies, the rating scale, and the personality inventory. Most of the commercially available self-inventories employ direct, undisguised questions, requiring a proper rapport between teacher and pupil. Honesty, sincerity, frankness, and insight are essential if questionnaires are to be of worth. If these qualities are assured, questionnaires can be used to obtain intimate, personal information pertinent to the understanding of the child. Data from a questionnaire ordinarily are first obtained from the parent regarding either his preschool child or his child about to enter school.

The need for gathering data about the medical history of a child can be met initially by means of the questionnaire. Note from the following example that some data may be obtained from the school nurse or pediatrician.

HEALTH QUESTIONNAIRE¹

Dear Parent:

By filling out this form you are doing your part as a member of the "school team" (physician, nurse, teacher and parent) in helping to give your child the best kind of health protection and services.

It is important for the physician to have quite a bit of information about a child before a medical examination.

We suggest that you talk with your child when you fill out this form. If you will, all of us (you, your son or daughter, and the rest of the "school team") will have a better understanding of the health situation.

Just one last request. Please be sure to fill out that section on medical and dental supervision, because we would like to know if your child is under continuous health supervision.

Thank you so much for your cooperation. We are very sure that by all of us working together we can really help children.

Sincerely,

.....

PS: Please return the form on or before.....19.....

Again, thank you.

HEALTH INVENTORY FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL²

- I. Pupil's nameSex.... Birth date.....
 Address Phone No.
 Father's Name Mother's Name
 Employer's Address
 Employer's Telephone No.

In case of accident, this information will assist the school principal in notifying parents.

¹ Courtesy of School Superintendent, Mono County, Office of County Superintendent of Schools, Bridgeport, California.

² *Ibid.*

Mother Father

Brothers	Sisters	Others
1	1	1
2	2	2
3	3	3
4	4	4
5	5	5
6	6	6
7	7	7
8	8	8
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96	96	96
97	97	97
98	98	98
99	99	99
100	100	100

with whom is child living? Give relationship

II. Past illness (please check those which your child has had)

... measles	... scarlet fever	... heart disease
... whooping cough	... diphtheria	... chorea (St. Vitus
... infantile paralysis	... smallpox	Dance)
... rheumatic fever	... diabetes	... epilepsy (con-
		vulsions)

Please tell any other serious illness, operation or injury, and age when incurred:

III. Has this child been vaccinated against smallpox? Yes ... No ...
Did the vaccination take? Yes ... No ... Has he/she been im-
munized against diphtheria? Yes ... No ...

IV. Has he/she ever been around any one known to have had tuberculosis? Yes ... No ...

Has he/she had a skin test for tuberculosis? Yes ... No ... If yes, give date.

Has he/she had an x-ray of the chest? Yes ... No ... If yes, give date. Where was x-ray taken?

V. Please check any of the following symptoms which have been noted recently:

- ... 4 or more colds each year
- ... frequent sore throat
- ... frequent headaches
- ... blurred vision
- ... frequent styes
- ... frequent pains in legs
or joints
- ... dizziness
- ... fainting spells
- ... abdominal pain
- ... frequent urination
- ... allergy
- ... persistent cough
- ... hernia (rupture)
- ... speech difficulty
- ... running ears
- ... hard of hearing
- ... frequent nose bleeds
- ... night sweats
- ... tires easily
- ... shortness of breath

VI. Please give name of private physician or medical clinic When did this child last visit private doctor or medical clinic? How often (approximately) does he/she go to the above? Please give name of private dentist or dental clinic When did this child last visit his private dentist or dental clinic? How often (approximately) does he/she go to the dentist?

VII. Information which will help you, the school staff and physician understand your child better. Please check which of the following you observe in your child.

... nail biting	... jealous
... thumb sucking	... likes to play with others
... bed wetting	... resentful
... shy	... is generous with playmates
... happy disposition	... selfish
... orderly	... excitable
... helpful around home	... suspicious
... has many friends	... very easy to manage
... is a leader	... thoughtful of family members
... has few friends	... would rather read or study than play with other children
... prefers to be alone	... likes to go to school
... becomes discouraged easily	... other
... worries a great deal	
... has many fears	
... is self-reliant	
... dependable	

VIII. What times does this child usually go to bed?....Get up?.

How many meals does he/she eat daily:

... Breakfast ... Lunch ... Dinner

Does he/she have a packed lunch? Yes ... No ...

What is the average amount of milk he/she drinks each day? .

Check any other beverage which he/she usually drinks daily:

tea	... cola or other soft drinks
coffee	.. other
fruit juices	

IX. What does this child like to do when he is not in school, such as (circle)

hiking	movies
out door games	music
paper route	other
reading	

Are there any problems or other matters which you would like to discuss with the school staff (physician, teacher, nurse, other)?

.....

Date

Parent's signature

The more formal questionnaire, usually in a written form, has its advantages and disadvantages. Children of elementary school age are not old enough to be introspective, and much of their testimony is unstable, inconsistent, ill-considered, and unreliable. Nevertheless, questionnaires do provide the teacher with a good beginning in understanding her pupils. They have the advantage, too, of conserving time in gathering (though not in interpreting) data. An excellent questionnaire of this kind has been worked out by Witty and Kopel, Part 1 of which is reproduced here:

TEACHERS' AND CLINICIANS' CHILD STUDY RECORD³

FORM VI. PUPIL REPORT OF INTERESTS AND ACTIVITIES

Part 1. The Interest Inventory

Name Date of birth Age
 Grade School Teacher Date

These questions are to find out some of the things boys and girls do and how they feel about certain things. Answer each question as ac-

³ Reproduced by permission of Paul Witty and David Kopel, Northwestern University Psycho-Educational Clinic, Evanston, Illinois. Revised by Paul Witty and Anne Coomer.

curately as you can. If you do not understand a question, you may ask your teacher about it.

1. When you have an hour or two that you can spend as you please, what do you like best to do?
2. What do you usually do:
 After school?
 In the evening?
 On Saturdays?
 On Sundays?
3. At what time do you usually go to bed?
 When do you get up?
 Are you ever tired in the morning?..... Sometimes?
 times?..... Often?
 Are you ever late for school?..... Sometimes?.....
Often?
 Do you ever have headaches?..... Sometimes?.....
Often?.....
 Are you ever absent from school because of illness?.....
 Sometimes?..... Often?.....
 Do you ever cry?..... Sometimes?.....
 Often?
 Why do you cry?
4. In the space below write the full names and ages of your close friends.

 Underline the name of your best friend. Do you have many friends or few?
 Do you have a nickname?..... What?.....
 Do you like it?
 What do you like to play best?
 Would you rather play by yourself, with other boys, girls, boys and girls? Underline.
 Do you fight with your friends? Never, sometimes, often. Underline.
 Do you have as much time to play as you would like?.....
 Do you have any brothers or sisters? Write their names and ages here:

- With which of them do you play?
- Does your father or mother ever play with you?.....
- What?
- Do you like to be with your mother much of the time?.....
- With your father?
5. To what clubs or organizations do you belong?
-
- What do you do in your club?
-
- How long have you been a member?.....Are you an officer?
- Where do you meet?..... When?.....
- Do you go to Sunday School?
- Do you take any kind of special lessons outside of school?.....
- What kind?..... Do you like them?.....
- How long have you been taking lessons?.....
- Is there another type of lesson you would prefer to take?.....
6. What tools, toys, playthings do you have at home?.....
-
- Which do you like the best?
- Do you let other children use your toys?
- If not, why?
- Is there any tool, toy, or equipment that you especially want?.....
- What?
- Do you have a workshop?
- Are you carrying on any experiments?..... What?
- Do you ever give shows?
7. Do you receive spending money?..... How much?
-
- Regularly or occasionally?
- Do you have a job after school or on Saturdays?.....
- What do you do?
- How many hours each week do you work?
- Have you ever earned any money?
-
- How do you spend the money you receive or earn?.....
- Do you save money?..... How?.....
- Do you have chores or other regular duties to do at home?.....
- What?

- Do you enjoy these duties?..... Do you like your home?
8. How often do you go to the movies?
 With whom, usually?
 What are the names of the two best movies you have ever seen?
 a. b.
 Underline the kinds of pictures you like best:
 comedy western "sad" news love serial mystery
 gangster educational society cartoons
 Who is your favorite actor?
 Actress?
 If you were going into the movies, what kind of parts would you like to play?
 What stage plays have you seen?
 Do you prefer movies or plays? Underline.
9. Have you been to a farm?..... A circus?.....
 A zoo?..... A museum of art?.....
 Other museums?
 Have you been to an amusement park?.....
 Have you ever been on a picnic?.....
 Do you ever go to concerts?.....How often?.....
 Have you ever taken a trip by boat?.....By train?
 By airplane?..... By bus?.....
 By automobile?..... By bicycle?.....
 Where did you go?

 Where did you go during your last summer vacation?.....

 Underline once the places you liked and would like to see again;
 underline twice the places you did not like.
 To what other places would you like to go?.....

 Who takes you to different places, or do you go alone?.....
10. What would like to be when you are grown?
 What would your father and mother like you to be?.....
11. What is your favorite radio program?
 Second?
 Third?

- How much time a day do you spend listening to the radio?

12. What is your favorite television program?
 Second?..... Third?.....
 How much time do you spend each day watching television?

13. Do you have a pet?..... What?.....
 Are you making any collections?..... Of what?.....

 Do you have a hobby?..... What?.....
14. Do you like school?
 What school subjects do you like best?
 Second?..... Third?.....
 Do you take any electives?..... What?.....

 What school subjects do you dislike?
 What do you do best in school?
15. About how much time each day (outside of school) do you spend
 doing school work?
 Do your parents help you with this? Never, sometimes, often. Underline.

One of the greatest present values of the standardized personality inventory is the opportunity afforded the teacher (or specialist) to use the questions and responses to them as the basis of an informal interview. The teacher can obtain as much or more real information about the child by using this procedure than can be found by the objective interpretation of the test. This is also an excellent procedure to check on difficulties of reading. Questions of value can be selected from even the more advanced personality inventories if they are chosen for purposes of interview. Note, for example, some typical questions selected from the Bell Adjustment Inventory, designed principally for high school pupils:

1. Have the actions of either of your parents aroused a feeling of great fear in you at times?
2. Do you frequently experience nausea, or vomiting, or diarrhea?

3. Are you sometimes the leader at a social affair?

4. Are your feelings hurt?

These questions are no more difficult for the elementary school child than are the following questions from the California Test of Personality for elementary school pupils:

1. Is it easy for you to recite in class?

2. May you usually choose your own friends?

3. Do you often meet people who are so mean you hate them?

4. Do you bite your fingernails often?

When the teacher constructs her own informal questionnaire for the purpose of studying her pupils, she will find more information given if the questions are so constructed that something more is required than a yes or no answer. For example, rather than to state the question, "Is it easy for you to recite in class?" a more informative answer may be obtained by, "How do you feel when you recite in class?" Questions requiring thought are less objective and possibly not as indicative of true attitude, but they are advantageous when used in an interview.

Learning About the Child from His Autobiography

The distinctions between the case study, the case history, the life history, and the autobiography are not at all clear, but we shall limit the meaning of autobiography here to sketches which the child writes about his inner thoughts and feelings, his fears, his joy, his periods of anger, and his periods of pleasure. This places it more in the nature of a confessional rather than a record of events, although the latter should in no way be inhibited. Clearly, from this point of view, the thought of the child is somewhat directed and controlled by preliminary interview as to choice of content. A short questionnaire (discussed in subsequent paragraphs) has been used with good effect, but is not essential. The autobiography is not always trustworthy as a statement of fact, although it may contain excellent material for psychological analysis.

The autobiography has always been a useful diagnostic and therapeutic tool in psychiatry. Although the teacher should make no attempt whatever to adopt the tactics of a psychiatrist, she

will find that autobiographic sketches can be real sources of information about the child's problems, attitudes, interests, and associates. The autobiographical method may also serve as a basis for rapport in interviews concerning mental conflict and adjustment difficulties. It has, therefore, a peculiarly valuable quality in providing a view of the inner life and an account of past situations which gave origin to new meanings and new habits. Rich data can sometimes be obtained respecting the operation of effects of repression. From it can be framed questions and hypotheses to be tested by other data. The specialist, of course, who has been trained in counseling can make a much better use of the autobiography (and in all other techniques thus far discussed) than can the teacher. When available, the services of a specialist should be obtained in severe problem cases. Nevertheless, the teacher, too, can find use for the autobiography. The reader will no doubt see the possibilities of using it with a whole group as well as with an individual child.

Included in a questionnaire for the study of personality by Allport (1) is the following list of questions which can serve as a guide in a biographical study (note that the wording will have to be simplified for use in the elementary school):

AMBITIONS, INTERESTS, AND VOCATIONAL TENDENCIES

a. Have you at present a definite and practicable ambition or goal for your life's work? If so, what is it?

b. What specific things are you doing in order to realize this ambition? Is your ambition usually conceived in terms of an ideal person you would like to become, or of acts which you would like to be performing, or of power or prestige which you would like to possess?

Have you succeeded in making this purpose serve automatically as a drive behind all your daily work, or is it merely a daydream of the future? That is, does your ambition lead into action or into mere imagination?

How frequently do you change your mind about what you intend to become or to accomplish?

What are the reasons for these changes of mind?

Is your ambition in keeping with your ability and other traits of personality?

Does your zeal for accomplishment often spur you to strenuous mental

or physical exertion and increase your endurance and resistance to fatigue?

Have you any hobbies or special interests? Name them.

What is the origin of your various interests and ambitions? (Trace these origins as far back as you can.) To what degree of successful achievement are they likely to lead?

Are your minor interests and activities conducive or detrimental to the success of your major ambition or vocational work? That is, are all your drives, habits, and interests organized for the attainment of some final purpose? Is there harmony or conflict in your motivation?

Learning About the Child from His Diary

It is unusual to find a child of elementary school age who keeps a diary voluntarily. The diary is an instrument for the adolescent of high school and college age. Yet the possibilities of using such personal documents to learn something about the child are evident after examining excerpts taken from real diaries. Some teachers who were taking an in-service class in guidance determined to try the method with their pupils. They used the plan of encouraging each child to keep an intimate diary of himself every day for a two-week period. Before beginning the project, however, the personal and intimate character of a diary was discussed and some fictitious excerpts from a diary were read. The descriptions dealt with inner feelings of guilt, feelings of hatred, feelings of fear and friendship, all growing out of the experiences of the day.

One teacher of the group succeeded in getting her pupils to bring all of their "books of memory." From an examination of these she was able to obtain the reaction of friends in their written remarks to the owner. It gave her a deeper insight into interpersonal regard at various ages, and at the same time helped her to learn something about the friends of each child, when she used the book as a basis of interview.

Allport (2) made a study of the use of personal human documents ranging from personal accounts to critical and experimental studies. Included in this category were autobiographies, questionnaire responses, verbatim recordings, diaries, letters, and expressive and projective techniques. He found personal docu-

ments useful in research, in teaching, in the construction of questionnaires and typologies, and in social psychology.

The Wishes of Children

The needs of children are frequently expressed through their wishes. These wishes may be discovered in semistandardized questionnaires, by observation of informal conversations, by informal discussion, by projects in written composition, and even in the creative arts. An example of the more formalized questionnaire is "The Wishing Well," which includes a sampling of the wishes of fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade children organized in eight areas: feeling of belongingness, need to achieve, need for economic security, desire to be free from fear, need for love and affection, need to be free from guilt, need for recognition, and need to understand the world. A list of wishes are presented to the pupil, who checks those which apply to him. An example of some of these wishes are:

What does a child wish for if he lacks a feeling of belonging? They want friends, companions, fellowship. They want to be accepted by others. Let us assume that such wishes as the following express a need to belong:

- I wish I did not have to play by myself so much.
- I wish I liked more children.
- I wish I felt as though I really belonged in my school group.
- I wish there were more children my age to play with.
- I wish children in our neighborhood were friendlier to me.

It may be assumed that wishes like the following express a need to achieve:

- I wish I could do my own work with less help from others.
- I wish I could think of the right things to say.
- I wish I were learning how to get ideas of my own.
- I wish I would receive praise for what I do.
- I wish other children depended on me to do a good job when it was needed.

We assumed that such wishes as the following are related to the need for economic security:

- I wish I could be sure that my father would always have a steady job.
- I wish I could have money of my own to spend as I please.

I wish our family could afford to give each other better presents at Christmas and on birthdays.

I wish our family could afford to go to doctors or dentists whenever we needed them.

I wish our family had enough money so that we didn't have to worry so much about food, clothing, and rent.

It was assumed that such wishes as the following are related to a desire to be free from fear:

I wish I did not have dreams that frightened me.

I wish I were less afraid to play rough games.

I wish I were less nervous around people.

I wish I were less afraid of punishment.

I wish I were less afraid to do new things.

Let us assume that the following specific wishes are concerned with the need for love and affection:

I wish I had a few very good friends.

I wish I could talk over important things with my parents more often.

I wish my parents liked me as much as they did when I was younger.

I wish my parents did things that made me feel more love toward them.

I wish my parents paid more attention to me. •

We assumed the following wishes are typical expressions of the need to be free from guilt:

I wish I liked Negro (or white) children as much as white (or Negro) children.

I wish I had never lost my temper.

I wish I had never cheated.

I wish I had never looked down on people who are poor and uneducated.

I wish I had been more obedient.

It was assumed that wishes such as the following are related to the need of recognition:

I wish that other children and I could decide more things together.

I wish my vote really counted.

I wish I had some say in making the rules I am to obey.

I wish others did not try to do my planning for me.

I wish my opinions would be asked for more often.

Children want others to help them acquire understanding of the world in which they live. Such a need is expressed through wishes like the following:

I wish I knew how you can believe that God is always right and at the same time believe that you should think for yourself.

I wish I knew why we have wars when almost everyone seems to want peace.

I wish I knew what caused the trouble among Negroes and White people, and Jews and foreigners.

I wish I knew why factories sometimes shut down when people need the things they could make.

I wish I knew why people say that everyone is equal when some people have much more money than others (29)

Informal Observations

The Rating Scale

The rating scale presents a list of descriptive words or phrases which are checked to describe an individual pupil. Problem behavior in children, for example, is generally recognized as existing in various amounts. The traits listed, then, range from superior to inferior in social and personal adjustment, and the rater checks that part of the continuum which seems to be appropriate. In the case of rating by the teacher, she bases her judgment on as objective evidence as possible; that is, she attempts to answer the question, "What has this pupil done in various situations that leads me to believe that he is of a certain general type, or that he has reached a certain stage of development?"

In many schools there still exists the requirement that each teacher write a brief description in essay form of each pupil. This is an almost impossible task for the busy teacher today because of lack of time, of awareness of what is most important, and of ability to write such a description. The task is facilitated when attention is called to the particular information deemed most important; even then the total amount written on an entire class is too bulky for easy access to essential facts. When a description is written year after year on a pupil, the cumulative summaries lose much of their value.

In the case of pupils with whom the teacher or other raters are well acquainted, there is a tendency to rate too high and to show leniency and favoritism. This may be referred to as the "halo effect"; that is, the rater's general opinion or overall im-

pression of a pupil will affect his ratings of more specific aspects or qualities of that pupil. Negatively, it has been found, too, that if a pupil is considered low in one seemingly important aspect of his personality or adjustment, there is a tendency to rate him low in other aspects. The reliability and validity of the ratings of a pupil are increased as the number of raters increase.

When a teacher constructs a rating scale for her pupils she will follow two major steps: (1) the analysis of his adjustment into specific traits or modes of behavior, and (2) the provision of various levels or descriptions for each trait or mode. The possible reactions of a child in a group are random and many are insignificant from the standpoint of social adjustment.

Other reactions are vitally related to adjustment. If the traits to be rated are to be significant rather than irrelevant, it is necessary that definitions of each trait be specific. Furthermore, it is essential to select the situation which will give opportunity for the behavior to be expressed and recorded for purposes of evaluation.

Rating scales are of three types: descriptive, numerical, and graphic. In the descriptive scale, provision is made for a list of descriptive phrases from which the rater selects the one most applicable to the person rated. This form of scale is illustrated as follows:

DESCRIPTIVE RATING SCALE

Directions: Place a check mark in the space before the phrase which represents your evaluation of the pupil:

Can this pupil sustain attention?	Able to hold attention for long periods
	Is absorbed in what he does
	Attends adequately
	Difficult to keep at a task until completed
	Distracted: jumps rapidly from one thing to another

In the numerical rating scale illustrated below, only numbers are assigned for each trait. Occasionally the numerical scale is combined with the descriptive scale; the descriptive phases are

arranged in order of the degree, level, or intensity with which they indicate possession or lack of the trait. Each trait is numbered in the order presented.

NUMERICAL RATING SCALE

Directions: Describe the pupil from 0 to 10 to represent the degree to which he possesses the traits listed. 0 represents none of the traits, 5 an average amount, and 10 a maximum amount of the trait.

Can this pupil sustain attention?.....

The graphic rating scale is the best known and most frequently used type of scale. It is illustrated in the example below:

GRAPHIC RATING SCALE (18)

Is his attention sustained?

Distracted: jumps rapidly from one thing to another	Difficult to keep at a task until completed	Attends adequately	Is absorbed in what he does	Able to hold attention for long periods
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With these examples it is evident that the soundness of a rating will depend upon the extent to which the behavior or characteristic in question is clearly described and whether its appearance, when it occurs, can be clearly perceived. The advantage of using these scales is that they can provide an appraisal of many traits and qualities that could be measured by other methods only with difficulty. Such ratings should be valuable to supplant other devices.

Sociometrics—A Form of Pupil Rating

Pupils Evaluations of Each Other

Much can be discovered about pupils and about a group as a whole by having pupils rate each other, if the teacher can

SOCIOMETRIC TABULATION OF TEST DATA

[illegible]

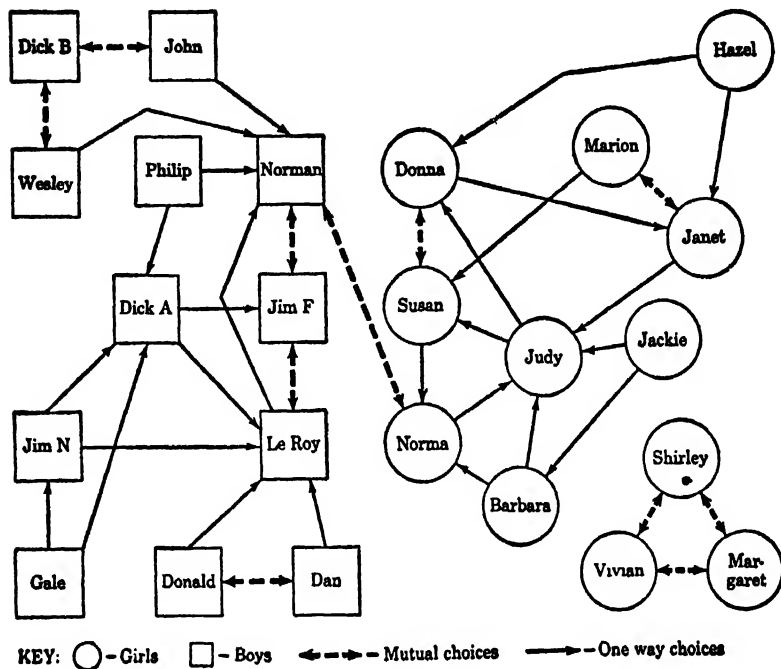
attain their coöperation. Of the methods used to reveal group structure, that is, preferences that pupils in the group have for one another, none have become so prominent as the sociometric techniques. There are many variations of initiating these techniques, but as typical of the directions we may use the following: "Will you write down the names of your best friends? Since there isn't room for very many names, you must choose your very best friends." From the data collected it is possible to find who chooses whom, who is chosen the most frequently, who are the isolates, or who chooses a certain person without being chosen by that person.

A SUGGESTED METHOD FOR USING THE SOCIOMETRIC TEST. Each child is provided with a 3 x 5-inch card. On one side he writes his own name and on the other side he writes the figures 1, 2, and 3, which will represent his choices. After the test it is convenient to arrange the cards in alphabetical order, according to the student's last name. After cards have been collected and arranged alphabetically the data may be tabulated on a form similar to that illustrated. It should be noted that pupils have been given a code number. "Choosers" are listed in the vertical column and "chosen" are listed in the horizontal column. The total choices which are received by each pupil are shown at the bottom. Girls may be coded in even numbers and boys in odd numbers.

Some investigators have found it convenient to give first choices a rating of 5, second choices a rating of 3, and third choices a rating of 1. The data from the work sheet can be translated into a sociogram, such as that shown on page 84.

From the tabulation data separate the pupils into three or four categories according to total scores. Those receiving the highest scores can be placed near the center of the sociogram, while those receiving least or no total will be placed in the periphery. On the sociogram triangles may symbolize boys and circles symbolize girls and either names or numbers may be placed within the symbol. The choice of a pupil is shown by an arrow pointing from himself, the chooser, to the one he chooses. If desired, the examiner may use different kinds of lines or colors to designate

first, second, or third choices. For example, he may use a solid line in order to designate the first choice, a dash line for the second choice, and a dotted line for the third choice (38:305-310).



Sociogram based upon the first two of the three choices made by each sixth-grade pupil. (From Ruth Cunningham, *et al.*, *How to Construct a Sociogram*, Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1947.)

The Social Acceptance Scale

The "guess who" test used by Hartshorne and May (19) several decades ago is one of the oldest devices of the sociometric technique. In this instrument a series of snapshot descriptions of students are given, ranging from complimentary to definitely

not complimentary, and the individual taking the test writes down the name of any student whom he thinks the description fits.

In modified form this test appears as the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale which combines the usual rating scale with the sociometric technique. Each member of a group is asked to give a reaction to each of the other members in the group in terms of a six-point scale. This type of scale is shown in the accompanying illustration.

Another well-known scale is the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute Social Distance Scale which provides for a listing of all class members arranged horizontally on top of a wide sheet and a space for the pupil to check the degree of preference or rejection on a scale ranging from one to five. Pupils in Position One designate best friends, and those in Position Five are not desired for company. The data can conveniently be summarized in the form of a sociogram.

AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE SCALE IN PRACTICE. A class in a Cincinnati grade school consisted of five children from an orphan's refuge, fifteen Negroes, four Jews, one Korean, and one Russian. Each child was given a list of his classmates and was asked to indicate his attitude toward each of them individually, using as a guide in making his evaluation a printed form containing different attitudes numbered from 1 to 6. The children did not sign their names to their evaluations and were encouraged to be truthful. The figure 1 placed beside the name of a child indicated that he would be welcomed as a special friend. The figure 2 indicated that he was not wanted as a special friend but that the evaluator had a feeling of true friendship for him. The figure 3 meant that the child was not considered a real friend but was satisfactory; 4 meant that the evaluator did not really know his classmate and therefore made no judgment; 5 was the mark given for a child who was no fun and was not liked; and 6 meant that the evaluator felt actual dislike for the pupil.

The results of this unique test showed that the three children who were best accepted were a Jewish girl, a Negro girl, and the

SAMPLE OF SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE SCALE

Directions: On this sheet you will find the name of every pupil in the seventh grade. We want you to put a number after every name. The number you put down should be the number of one of the following paragraphs.

Andrea	
Della	
Burt	
Elva	
Carla	
Fay	
Garry	
Helen	
Ila	
John	
Kim	
Lorna	
Mike	
Nola	
Pat	
Quentin	
Robert	
Sara	
Ted	
Uba	
Verl	
Wilma	
Xerxes	
Yerda	
Zella	

1. *My very best friend.* The names I put a number 1 by are my very best friends (or I would like them to be). I would like to spend a lot of time with them. I would tell them secrets and I would do a lot of things to keep them out of trouble. I could tell them my troubles and I would enjoy going places with them.
2. *My other friends.* I will put a number 2 by the names of people that I like to work with and talk to. I would invite them to parties and picnics and would want them to be my friend.
3. *Not friends but they are all right.* I put a number 3 by those I would work on committees with and be in plays with and have on the same team that I am on. They are all right, but I don't consider them my friends.
4. *Don't know them.* I put a number 4 beside these people—maybe I would like them and maybe I wouldn't. I don't know them well enough to say.
5. *Don't care for them.* A number 5 is for those I say hello to when I see them, but I do not enjoy being with them. I might associate with them if I had nothing else to do, but I don't care for them very much.
6. *Dislike them.* I speak to these people (a number 6) only when I must. I don't like to work with them and I don't like to talk to them.

Korean boy. Race and environmental factors were evidently not connected with the pupils' rating. The second part of the test was a self-portrait of each child made in words. Pupils were given forms containing 36 groups of statements. The child was asked to choose the statement in the group which was "most like" himself and the one "least like" himself. The results showed that pupils found their greatest comfort in the friendships established in the home and in family relationships (29: 169-177).

Suggestions for Interpretation of the Sociogram

The results of a sociogram may be used to evaluate human relations, a teacher's achievement of objectives, and to provide data for planning. The following five suggestions are not all-inclusive.

1. What are your general impressions? When the sociogram looks shaggy and lacks focus there is likely to be similar looseness and lack of direction in the group. It will be difficult to combine such a group into a unified team. This type of group structure may be improved by providing opportunities for children's feelings to be expressed openly; by avoiding the exploitation of the extrovert; by introducing more committee work; by preventing members of closed cliques from continuing to be conspicuously off by themselves; and by varying the composition of each committee so as to make it a more cosmopolitan mixture.

2. Are the results as you expected? Do certain pupils turn out to have been chosen, overlooked, or rejected?

3. Who are the isolates and the stars? An isolate is a person whose choices are not reciprocated and a star is one who receives the most choices. What are the reasons for status? Is the isolate shy? Domineering? Physically handicapped? Dirty? New to the school?

4. What are the reasons for mutual or reciprocal choices? Are these the result of kin relation? Neighborhood propinquity? Quality of interest, skills, or maturity?

5. Do you find cliques? Look for triangles or other evidence

of an in-group. Cliques are often common when only one choice is given. They frequently accompany antagonisms, disagreements, and lack of coöperation.

The Sociometric Procedure for Selecting Groups

A typical sociometric test question, "With whom would you like to work in the weekly composition groups?" may provide data for organizing new groups for smooth and effective accomplishment. New pupils may be introduced among groups having a closed formation. Generally a star pupil will not object to having an isolate placed with him. It is not wise to assign more than two isolated pupils in each working group. Wise teachers will attempt to place in a group at least as many pupils of average sociometric position as of isolates and stars combined. Pupils should become skilled in the process of group decision, in the exercise of coöperation and tolerance, and in their acceptance of different personalities and cultural milieu.

Studying the Child from the Anecdotal Record

The anecdotal method is essentially a method of observation. Even the busiest teacher uses the method to some extent, although most of her observations go unrecorded. Any permanent developmental cumulative record for each pupil requires a recording of the most significant episodes observed. An anecdotal record, then, is a written description of actual behavior taking place in situations noted by the teacher, in contrast to the rating scales and questionnaires which provide records only of the summary interpretation of the behavior observed. A description made by each teacher of any behavior which she observed and which she thinks significant may be included. The anecdote presents data from which summary interpretations can be made. For the practice of presenting a grade such as A, B, or F for the work of pupils, say in art, is substituted the practice of presenting samples of the work product itself, which permits later evaluations at any time.

When is an anecdotal record good or bad as a medium for understanding children? An answer to the question requires

the consideration of two criteria: validity and reliability. First, for what purpose is the observation made? Is it to describe the degree of social adjustment? A condition or change of attitude? A situation showing interest? The degree of progress of learning? Each of these items must be clearly defined and the purpose of making the record clearly established. The definition and purpose lead to a definition of the kind of situation in which specific behavior is likely to be found. Otherwise there may be little more than incidental behavior recorded, much of which would be entirely irrelevant and unimportant. Time does not permit the classroom teacher to be so wasteful in effort. Teachers have had neither a well-understood and organized purpose in observing nor a common language in recording. Effective anecdotes require that the teacher know what is important and that she follow a somewhat consistent technique and language in the recordings.

Anecdotal records can be roughly classified as records of incidental observations, time-sampling observations, out-of-school observations, stenographic reporting and phonograph or wire recordings, and films and photographs.

Incidental Observation

Incidental observation is the common observation by which people obtain opinions of one another. There is no attempt to control the conditions under which the observation is made, nor is an attempt made to sample the behavior. The impressions and opinions are described to others in the form of anecdotes, exceptionally interesting events, and statements of facts. The method cannot be called scientific, even when made by a scientifically trained person. The observations made may or may not be accurate, but need not be wholly distrusted as a source of information, if a sufficient number of incidental observations are made by a sufficient number of people and properly recorded. The data can induce a general impression and present a general picture of the pupil.

Note the following 15 brief incidental observations recorded by a teacher inexperienced in making such records:

- July 7: Answered several questions. Got attention of class when teacher was trying to instruct them.
- July 11: Had children around her—teacher had to remind her that the bell had rung.
- July 11: Called the attention of the class to her shoes, asked, "Want to know where I got them?"
- July 12: "Our other teacher played the game like this." Teacher let her demonstrate.
- July 14: "Want me to show you a game?" Teacher let her demonstrate. Edna forgot how it was finished.
- July 18: Copied her lesson desultorily. Reached over and drew a shell on other child's book.
- July 21: Volunteered to recite—didn't know her lesson.
- July 23: (Janice was explaining a game.) Edna said, "I know a better one than that." Teacher called on her. She couldn't show them but insisted, "I know one, though."
- July 25: Watched a lovely dance—didn't clap.
- July 28: Couldn't follow the simple instructions for a game—tried a little while then quit. (Waved her hand.) "Let's play 'Flying Dutchman.' I don't like new games."
- July 30: Watched the other children. Didn't want to play. •
- Aug. 1: The class was asked to copy the work on the board. Edna waved her hand. "Do we have to write all of it?" When the teacher answered "Yes," Edna said, "In our other school we didn't have to write at all."
- Aug. 4: (Class was having recurring rhythms.) Edna happily clapped with the rest.
- Aug. 6: Was asked to lead class. Led class but had to have them stop while she looked for next line in book. Resented being told the number of the lines by other members in the class.
- Aug. 8: Copied work—no comment. Teacher asked, "Are you all sorry when school is out?" Edna said, "No, our other school starts soon."

It is rather evident that this pupil is somewhat of a problem to her teacher, although the data present the problem rather than solve it. Presenting problems and placing them in a setting rather than aiding in solving them are characteristic of incidental observations. The teacher who made these few observations, however, concluded that the child was always making a bid for atten-

tion, lacked a feeling of security, and craved recognition. Further data may show this teacher's conclusion to be correct.

Time-Sampling Methods

The time-sampling method of observation is the most refined of all observation methods. With this method the observations are made in a series of short time periods, preferably distributed so as to afford a representative sampling of the behavior under observation. No control is made in the natural situation beyond that of recording events during a constant period of time. The steps for planning a project for a time-sampling method are usually as follows:

1. Make a careful definition of the behavior to be observed. The following illustrative behaviorisms have been defined and observed: aggressiveness, anger, coöperation, nervous habits, resistance, social interaction, talkativeness, and so on. Olson's (27) study on the observation of oral habits in children is now a classical example of the time-sampling method. Oral habits were carefully defined as thumb sucking, finger sucking, nail biting, and protruding tongue.

2. Make a careful definition and analysis of the situation of occurrence. For example, the trait of independence is found in a situation where pupils do more than is assigned to them by their teacher or where they use initiative and interest in carrying on unrequired investigation. In the study of bad oral habits, the situation was defined by (1) any penetration of the lips by thumb or finger, and (2) extrusion of the tongue. Putting a pencil in the mouth was not to be counted unless accompanied by thumb or finger.

3. Control the time during which the observation is to be made. Is the child to be observed every day? Every other day? Once a week? What hour of the day is he to be observed? In Olson's study all observations were to be made in the morning at the rate of one room per morning. Furthermore, all observations were to be confined to the first hour in the morning during the month of April. Only one entry was to be made per child per five-minute period, regardless of the frequency within the

period, so that with twenty observations the possible range of scores was from 0 to 20.

An example of a time-sampling type of anecdotal record is shown as follows. The characteristic to be observed in this case was the degree of "good study habits":

THE CASE OF JOHN

April 1

11:00—Looked around the room.

11:02—Opened his book and looked at picture.

11:04—Poked the boy in front of him.

11:06—Talked with the girl across the aisle.

11:08—Still talking.

11:10—Looked around the room.

April 7

11:00—Opened his desk in search for a pencil.

11:02—Still looking.

11:04—Poked the boy in front with his pencil.

11:06—Opened his book.

11:08—Left his desk to sharpen his pencil.

11:10—Drew picture of a dog on his paper.

April 14

11:00—Appeared to be daydreaming.

11:02—Dropped book on floor.

11:04—Looked at pictures in book.

11:06—Still looking.

11:08—Worked on his notebook, copying from text into his notebook.

11:10—Continued to write.

April 21

11:00—Opened book and began to read.

11:02—Still reading.

11:04—Interrupted by boy in front.

11:06—Talking to boy in front.

11:08—Reading his book.

11:10—Still reading.

This brief record reveals more about the study habits of this pupil than any test could possibly tell. The observation is significant and systematic, and the data can easily be compared

or contrasted with that gathered from observation of another pupil. In this systematic observation the observer selects beforehand, from the mass of events occurring in the everyday activity of the child, a particular situation or series of situations for observation. The behaviorisms of the pupil are recorded systematically, following a predetermined plan. This type of record is distinguished from that obtained from a test or a controlled experiment in that the behavior noted occurs in a natural setting.

Characteristics of a Good Anecdote

There are no rigid rules for selecting and describing an anecdote. What is described will always reflect the teacher's own concept of academic, emotional, and social adjustment as well as her acquaintance with the pupil. On the other hand, it is not difficult to distinguish between an anecdote written by an experienced writer and user of anecdotes and one written by an amateur. The following anecdotes were written by teachers inexperienced in the technique:

FRANCIS

Francis is shy and timid. I believe that this actually hampers her work. She seems to take her school work seriously. I think she can be brought out of this tight reserve. She has improved slowly. She seems to be generous with a fair amount of initiative when pushed into a situation.

ROBERT

On observing Robert and his seemingly incessant raising of his desk against the wishes of teacher and classmates, I believe he feels insecure. I believe that he could probably do his work if he wanted to. I would say this probably goes back to a home situation which of course I know nothing about. Most children who are such show-offs and who try to gain attention really are those who feel insecure.

MARY

There seems to be a nervousness about Mary, so much so that she cannot be still long at a time. It is possible that she is smart enough to finish her work, leaving nothing to take up her extra time but moving around. She may not have an interest in books enough to read

long. She probably needs extra training on how to use her time for her own benefit as well as for her classmates.

The teachers who have written these anecdotes are exhibiting the usual errors of an amateur. In the first place, they are making impetuous judgments about children's actions on the basis of few data or no data at all. Emphasis is given to interpretation (that is, on how they themselves react to the child) more often than to the behavior itself. Little evidence is provided to indicate the pupils' motives and attitudes; thus the statements are practically empty and worthless in generalization.

Improved anecdotes are brief descriptions of exactly what the pupil did or said, and of the situation that led up to the action or comment. The following anecdotes are somewhat better than those preceding; they are characterized, however, by what the teacher thinks and feels about the behavior described. Too much interpretation and evaluation are offered without supporting evidence.

ROBERTA

Roberta finds the work too hard for her so she shows off in an officious, assertive, compensatory fashion. She has shown no improvement during the last six weeks and probably will not until her sense of security is built up. Her health should be checked carefully, for she appears to be overweight. Her home environment is apparently inadequate, and she shows no respect for the rights of others. Her insecurity comes from not having had enough experience of the right kind. It takes time for the school to compensate for that which the home has neglected. Great satisfaction comes to one who can help accomplish this for the child.

JIM

Jim showed self-initiative today when he made a contribution to the science class. He is noncoöperative, however, because he refuses to work with the teacher and his classmates. His work spirit is very weak because he works for only short periods of time. He probably lacks motivation. I am going to make a survey of his interests and try to include some of them in his curriculum.

BARBARA

July 14—Barbara is sitting quietly at her desk. She appears to be

very attentive and knows what is going on in the classroom. She is always eager to contribute, but she does not interrupt other children who are speaking. She is courteous and excuses herself when she walks in front of me. She works independently and asks only occasional advice from me. When the advice is given she leaves quickly to correct her mistake. When her mistake is corrected she does not get flustered, but remains cool and self-assured.

The anecdotes included both objective description of behavior and an interpretation based on the teacher's reactions. In each case the personality of the pupil is usually characterized by one or two prominent traits without a description of what the pupil actually did. No hint is given of the interplay of factors that produced it. Many of the interpretations should have been withheld or set apart from the facts observed.

Ideally, the anecdote should have three divisions: the incident as observed, the interpretation, and the recommendation. It is not always essential that these three parts be present in every description, but that which is written should fit easily into at least one of the categories. Note these attempts of teachers to follow this principle:

PAUL

Observation: Paul volunteers to answer every question asked. Several times this morning he asked other pupils to speak louder. He volunteered to show and read a letter he had received from his brother in Hawaii.

Interpretation: Paul is evidently a bright pupil. He is alert on all occasions and coöperates by voluntarily doing duties in the classroom. Bringing mail for group discussion indicates initiative. His work spirit is excellent, for he partakes in discussion at all times and willingly tries to answer all questions. The fact that he does want to hear all that is being said shows that he desires coöperation.

Recommendation: Paul should have extra work to do. I need to know his IQ and shall take steps to have the psychometrist determine it. His spirit of coöperation should be encouraged to remain where it is, although I shall have to suggest that we plan to develop "courteousness" in conversation.

NATHAN

Observation: Refused to coöperate or join in our conversation.

Remained at table when his group moved to the library corner. Played with money while he sat alone. He knew how much he had and could write the amount on the board.

Interpretation: Nathan is my most difficult problem. There are days when he shows wonderful coöperation and initiative; other days he acts sullen—unwilling to have anything to do with the class. He works only when he feels like it.

Recommendation: There are evidently some hidden factors which I must attempt to uncover. There must be some reason why he acts as he does. Is it his sense of security? Does he have a feeling of inferiority? Is he an only child used to having his own way?

JERRY

(Jerry is a big, dark, lovable, curly-haired boy.)

- July 7: Jerry laughed at a story read in class. Clapped his neighbor on the shoulder. Became confused. Teacher smiled and said she was glad that he had enjoyed the story.
- July 9: Tries to do the somersault exercise—fails. Other children try to help him. He accepts their efforts and still laughs when he finally makes it sideways.
- July 11: Wrote his work in surprisingly clear, round letters.
- July 14: Got 7 out of 10 exercises.
- July 16: Took insignificant part in play. Enjoyed it and said, "That was fun."
- July 21: Helped arrange heavy stage setting in end of room.
- July 23: Watched story being dramatized.
- July 25: Took part in game.
- July 28: Put so much effort into drawing that he made a hole in his paper.
- Aug. 1: Children were asked to suggest a part they would like in the story. Jerry said, "I could be the big dark cloud."
- Aug. 4: Children were "walking like circus animals." Jerry good-naturedly walked like an elephant at one of the other children's suggestions.
- Aug. 6: Took part in game (ball).
- Aug. 8: Said he was sorry that school was out.

Interpretation: Not very alert on the 14th. On the 9th, 11th, 28th, good work attitude. Happy in his ability on the 9th, 16th. Good teacher and child relationship on the 7th, 9th of July, and 1st of August.

Recommendation: I should find out about Jerry's family life. There is some reason for him always being one of the crowd, but never one of

the leaders. Also why is he pleased with such little awards in the games and plays (July 16th and August 1st)? Would also try making him a leader. Probably the nurse could check his diet to reduce his weight. Does July 7th denote a lack in stability?

The complete picture of a child through anecdotal description is obtained only by the crucial requirement of being "cumulative." Not only should many anecdotes be collected for each pupil, but as many different observers as possible should record them. Notice how a complete stranger develops an intimate feeling for the following child as the anecdotes are read.

DICKIE

(Age 8 years 3 months, Chinese-American)

Jan. 10: Dickie worked for a period of ten minutes at drawing two flying geese. When his painting was voted the best in the class, his face remained perfectly impassive. As the class left the room he stopped and straightened his drawing, now on display with others.

Interpretation: Dickie has well-developed work habits and great ability at concentration. He has creative ability and enjoys expressing himself in art. He is not a part of the group and appears "withdrawn." His seeming indifference is possibly a defense mechanism. Some of his lack of expression may be a racial characteristic, or due to the training of his culture, but he appears to be consciously withdrawn.

Jan. 15: Other boys are busy on their projects. Dickie is waiting for his material, sitting quietly at the table playing with a piece of wood, and continuously pursing and unpursing his lips. He does not appear to be saying words to himself but grimacing. I gave him a piece of wood, and he went to work at once.

Interpretation: Dickie's position as the only member of his race is probably keenly felt. He is the only one who doesn't respond at least by smile or gesture to someone else. His nervous mannerism is a symptom of strain.

Jan. 28: Dickie waited quietly for another boy to finish with the brace-and-bit. He showed the first boy how to handle it and then held the wood for him.

Interpretation: Dickie has developed capability in handling tools. He is eager to find status. By helping the other boy he achieved the social contact he lacks.

Feb. 1: Dickie drilled a hole in his "log" in a careful manner. He used tools well. When he laid the brace-and-bit down another boy took it and started to drill. Dickie took the brace-and-bit back (not snatching) and said, "Here, give me that." The other boy then waited his turn quietly.

Interpretation: His social attitudes show improvement in this environment requiring activity involving manual skill. He shows increasing assertiveness and confidence.

Feb. 15: Dickie painted his woodpecker neatly and carefully. He reached over his neighbor's work for the white paint. The other boy pushed his arm back. Dickie reached again. Another rebuff. Dickie merely looked at the boy, reached again. Foiled again, Dickie said, "Don't," in a very soft voice, then walked around the boy and got his brush into the paint.

Interpretation: Dickie showed great emotional control, too much for a child of his age. His politeness may be partly due to upbringing, but his hesitancy was so marked I believe it showed fear and uncertainty. He is afraid of group censure. Because he does not feel at home with the boys he lacks essential security.

Feb. 16: When the teacher said, "Clean up," Dickie at once went to work and cleaned his group's table, also the floor. He put away the hand drill he had used previously, although another boy had used it last. He then sat quietly in his place. The teacher asked for someone to clean the paint cans. Dickie jumped up and got a paper towel and carefully wiped off the cans.

Interpretation: Dickie has a coöperative attitude toward the teacher, and responds quickly to all requests. He always helps to clean up. I believe, however, that this is a compensatory device to make up for his lack of "belonging" to the group.

Recommendation: Dickie shall be assigned with another boy to clean up so that he will get experience in working with someone. His activity is always individual. I shall make some reference to "our clean-up men for the day" and single out Dickie alone to give him social recognition. No notice has ever been taken of his help.

Mar. 2: Dickie finished his work and, after sitting quietly at his table for some time, arose and sauntered about the room, with his hands in his pockets, pursing and straightening his lips constantly as is usual when he is not occupied. He stopped at each boy and looked at his work, but not at the boy, even when he looked up. He said nothing. One boy pushed him and said, "Get away, you." Dickie at once sauntered on, his

face expressionless, but his lips were moving much more rapidly than usual. He helped clean up as usual.

Interpretation: Dickie is lacking in social development and is ignored or shunned by others. In defense he has withdrawn entirely from the group. He would like to make advances and be friendly but is afraid of being rebuffed. His nervous habit of lip-moving shows that his repression and rigid self-control have been developed to maintain his mask of indifference. This is more serious to his later development than bad behavior.

Mar. 9: Dickie sat at his table, experimenting with a hand drill on a scrap of wood. Jimmy came up and, as he watched, said, "Kin I do that?" and took hold of the tool. Dickie held on; murmured something. Jimmy gave a jerk. Dickie held on but did not jerk. Eventually Jimmy gave up and walked on.

Interpretation: Dickie does not know how to coöperate with others or win friends. He does not seem to know how to respond socially. He is becoming self-centered and selfish.

Mar. 20: When the teacher said, "Clean up," Dickie picked up a brush from the floor and began brushing the table. A boy said, "Hey, that brush belongs to our table!" and took it away. Dickie made no protest or motion. He looked for a brush on his table but did not find it. He got a paper towel and wiped the table.

Interpretation: Lacks confidence and normal assertiveness.

Mar. 21: Dickie was approached by Charles, who had finished his woodpecker and log and was examining Dickie's. He picked Dickie's woodpecker up and said, "Gee, it's pretty good. Look at mine. It goes rat-a-tat. Is yours finished? Are you going to take it home?" Dickie said nothing, but nodded.

Apr. 2: Tommy was watching Dickie work. Dickie asked him to get a wood chisel. Tommy said, "Where?" Dickie pointed to the tool cupboard. Tommy brought it back and Dickie took it without speaking. Later Tommy started to hammer it into the table. Dickie said softly, "Hey, don't do that." Tommy stopped. He leaned over too closely to watch and got a blow on the chin from Dickie's chisel handle. Dickie laid the tool down, and said, "Does it hurt?" His face showed some expression. Tommy said it didn't hurt, but Dickie fussed over it, seemed solicitous. When he finished with the vise he showed Tommy how to put the wood in and how to handle the tool.

Interpretation: Dickie shows some evidence of growth in whole-

some social attitudes. The opportunity was taken to help a child who was smaller and less adept with tools. Probably here he was not afraid of rebuff. He showed kindness in his attitude when Tommy was hurt. He has well-developed responsibility because he would not let Tommy mar the table. He needs more opportunities to work with someone.

Apr. 6: Dickie was walking around the room, pursing his lips, watching the boys work. He stopped behind Tommy, touched him on the back, said, "Hi." Tommy looked up and said, "Hi." Dickie sauntered on.

Interpretation: Dickie has gained a little in confidence, and for the first time he is now making some advances in securing friendship.

May 2: Dickie had finished his work and was strolling about. His lips were barely moving. He stopped beside Tommy and said something. Tommy answered and looked up and smiled. Dickie sat down beside him and stayed there watching for ten minutes. They talked occasionally. Once he held a board while Tommy sawed. Dickie did not move his lips.

Interpretation: Dickie is developing some spirit of friendliness and coöperation, when the activity throws him in contact with others. His nervousness and guarded attitude relax somewhat in a pleasant, friendly environment.

Summary: Dickie is similar to his group in dress, cleanliness, and speech. He has native ability and concentrates very well. He has a good work spirit and responsibility in carrying through his own work. He co-operates with the teacher, learns well, behaves well, and is very industrious. He doesn't show initiative in finding work for himself after his assignment is finished. His principal lack is in social attitudes, where he has shown a little growth.

Dickie should be given coöperative projects, where he will have some responsibility in getting others to do their share. He should be given adequate social recognition for his desirable characteristics. The emphasis should be on helping others, or on the work of the group as a whole, because he is too self-centered. If he can gain status with his group by being able to help and being really useful to it, he may be more readily accepted into the group. He showed less isolation in the environment of the shop than in the classroom. A program which stresses activities will give him a chance to develop a larger number of desirable traits and attitudes. Because he is of a different race he is under a handicap; here is a special need for unobtrusive teacher guidance. If this child is to develop a well-rounded personality, he must be assimilated into the group. At present he appears to be a failure both to himself and to our school system. There are some hopeful

signs, however, and it is believed he will respond well if given the opportunity.

Dickie needs experience in self-initiated activities as well as in leadership activities and coöperation. He did not develop independent interests, as many of the boys did in shop work, but limited himself to assignments. The teacher should give encouragement to him and provide free periods, with choice of activities. He can be guided by suggesting possible projects, but by leaving the development of them up to him. He seems to have the creative ability, concentration, and perseverance necessary to carry out a project of his own planning. Many other boys built wagons, kites, airplanes, etc., and drew their own plans, but Dickie did not attempt anything like this. He lacks confidence and initiative in this respect.

He should also be given opportunity for verbal and dramatic self-expression, by participation in plays, group-created if possible, and by report of some well-motivated project. If it can be arranged to have Dickie chosen by the group itself, it will be best.

The first essential of a good anecdote is the clear separation between exactly what was observed and its interpretation. Occasionally a recommendation is helpful, but it is not always essential. The second essential is that there be a proper balance between desirable, normal behavior and undesirable or problem behavior. Undue emphasis on bad behavior tends to "black-list" pupils. For this reason many teachers prefer to meet pupils with a "clean-slate" without being biased by other teachers' records. A third essential is that there be several anecdotes for each pupil and that these anecdotes be made by as many different observers as possible. A fourth is that the incidents recorded be significant. The description is to be a true picture of what actually occurred; and if remarks are made, they are to be recorded in the child's own language.

Administrative Features of Anecdotal Records

These features have been adequately classified by Traxler (36: 126): (1) enlisting coöperation, (2) deciding how much should be expected of observers, (3) preparing forms, (4) obtaining the original records, (5) central filing, and (6) summarizing. Coöperation proceeds when teachers have established among themselves a genuine interest in the needs of the child. This interest

develops only with the conviction that the development of each pupil is more important than the teaching of subject matter. Once an anecdotal plan is agreed upon, a decision must be made on some reasonable minimum number of anecdotes to be written by each teacher per week. The minimum number is mutually decided after a short period of experimentation. Every pupil exhibits behavior that brings out his personal qualities; thus, teachers should be encouraged to record typical rather than exceptional behavior.

The form for the records should be simple. Many teachers prefer a small pad which can be inconspicuously carried. Others prefer to make a mental note of the anecdote, to be recorded later at the first opportunity. The date and the place should be given with each anecdote.

In those school systems where it can be afforded, the suggestions for reducing time by Jarvie and Ellingson (22) are helpful: (1) by providing centrally located dictaphones for use in recording anecdotes, each teacher can be allotted certain times each week for their use; (2) secretaries can meet teachers at specified times to take down anecdotes and transcribe them for the central file; (3) weekly discussions can be organized where secretaries can record anecdotes brought forth.

The Use of Films and Photographs in Studying the Child

Films and photographs have the advantage of preserving a permanent record of classroom and individual activities that can be analyzed subsequently through repeated observations. A single direct observation of an activity cannot include all of the significant facts. On the other hand, a film or photograph may be viewed and analyzed as often as necessary. In an hour or two of film analysis the teacher can attain a much better idea of the individual characteristics of each member of her class than she can in a great many hours of ordinary observation. For example, a diagnosis of the characteristics of each child's study habits can be made under conditions that can be held constant and carefully controlled. The technique of using the sound film is especially valuable in diagnosing the characteristics of a child's

reactions in a discussion group. Such items as follow may be isolated for specific analysis: rate of response to questions, the duration of individual recitations, the analysis of oral composition during discussion, and the general atmosphere of the entire class procedure.

A classic example of the use of the film is the study by Gesell, who summarized the physical and social growth of a boy in 800 photographs. The motion picture is invaluable for helping teachers to understand children. The description and source of many of these can be found in the references at the end of this chapter, but we shall mention two here for purposes of illustration. The first, entitled "This is Robert" (32), traces the development of an aggressive, "difficult," yet thoroughly appealing child from his early nursery school days to his first year in a fine public school. Clumsy, blundering, confused by varied adult pressures, Robert's violent and haphazard aggression is seen as a strong, defensive counterattack on the whole world. Only his mother's steadying support and his teacher's firm, consistent, and affectionate treatment bring the child safely through the preschool years to an outwardly smooth adjustment in public school. The film incidentally suggests the activities of modern nursery and elementary schools. Its chief purpose is to demonstrate in ordinary situations as well as in the recently developed projective techniques, how every individual constantly reveals to the discerning observer his deep-lying needs and attitudes through the "language of behavior."

The second film, entitled "Guidance Problem for School and Home" (17) depicts the problem of Danny, a second-grade child who has poor social adjustment and who is not doing well in his school work. He is not interested in school work, although he has the ability to do it. The film shows scenes from his home life and the conflicting attitudes of his parents toward him. His unpopularity is revealed through episodes on the playground and in the classroom. The problem is partially remedied by conferences between the teacher and his mother, and between the teacher and the principal. The film tends to promote better understanding of child behavior and the ways in which it may

be influenced. It furnishes an opportunity for parents, teachers, and guidance workers to discuss the possible meaning of certain behavior and how it has arisen.

The use of films and photographs in the past has been limited to photographs of the child taken at various intervals through the elementary school years. The best modern cumulative record cards all have space for photographs of the child. As the making of sound films becomes less expensive, the school will find them a diagnostic instrument of great value. In their room files, teachers often find it enlightening to have a photograph of the pupil's present home, his brothers and sisters, his father and mother, and his playmates. On each picture should be placed the date when the photograph was taken. The pupil himself is often delighted to bring these photographs for the teacher to keep in her file.

Values and Limitations of Anecdotal Records

Personality traits of pupils traditionally have been difficult to evaluate, but without such evaluation the curriculum becomes factual, ritualistic, repetitious, and autocratic. Anecdotal records help to determine the pupil's attitude toward responsibility, toward group living, and toward standards of accomplishment; they aid in evaluating the status and growth of dependability, creativeness, imagination, perseverance, and emotional response; finally, they aid in determining the degree of open-mindedness, power and habit of analysis, and efficiency in the fundamental skills. These are the traits that are significant to a pupil's social development. They embody the essential aims of the educational program.

Anecdotal records provide a variety of descriptions of pupils in specific action, and thus contribute to an understanding of personality aspects rather than academic achievement. They provide data upon which rating scales can be used, but, unlike the rating scale made at certain points in the pupil's experience, they provide a continuous record. They offer a valuable validation and supplement to other evaluative instruments. This makes them of real aid to the clinician, the new teacher, or the new

school. Finally, they are of use in curriculum construction, modification, and operation.

Although caution and a gradual approach can minimize dangers, anecdotal records have decided limitations. In the first place, because they are subjective the descriptions may be faulty or inaccurate, and unless written by a teacher trained in the technique they may be interspersed with emotionally toned opinion and interpretation. Only a small portion of the total number of significant behavior incidents in any pupil's life will be recorded; thus there always exists the danger of incorrectly made interpretations and summaries. When anecdotes fall into the hands of irresponsible teachers, there is also the danger that unguarded prejudice will prevent the pupil from making emotional and social progress toward adjustment. The adoption of a system of anecdotal records will add to the total teaching load unless additional clerical help can be provided. The adjustment process is a slow process. In the case of a problem pupil, the anecdotal record may throw him into such high relief that too marked an effort will be made to short-cut the adjustment process (40). Anecdotal records may emphasize this negative aspect unless concentrated effort is made to observe and record evidences of growth.

Notwithstanding these apparent and real dangers, the anecdotal records provide a general technique for evaluating emotional and social adjustment that can scarcely be surpassed by a more formal and standardized method.

Studying the Child Through the Interview and Case Conference

The Interview as a Means of Collecting Data About the Child

The informal interview is by far the most revealing technique in collecting data about the child because of its natural conversational character. The interviewer has topics or questions about which he wishes information, but the situation is always a natural interactional conversation between the observer and the informant. The time necessary for extensive individual con-

ferences, however, is too forbidding for the teacher to use the technique exclusively. Unlike the formal interview, in which the interviewee is aware of the information wanted, the informal interview proceeds without the interviewee realizing he is revealing data about himself or his friends. Through the interview the teacher can follow general questions with a series of detailed questions, or general conclusions can be reached after specific questions concerning activities, interests, attitudes, beliefs, or plans. In form it covers a range from casual conversation to a standardized interview test, such as the Stanford-Binet Test of Intelligence. In content it may be purely factual, as in collecting census data, or it may be highly subjective and personal, as in a psychoanalytical interview.

The interview can be used as a technique of evaluation, guidance data collection, and therapy, but here we shall be concerned principally with its value in collecting data. The data should provide information about processes, end results, interests, attitudes, and feelings. These data are particularly useful in helping the teacher to secure information for case histories, or to discover the genesis of a problem. In other words, the interview is an essential technique for asserting the reasons for relationships, and the subjective factors, possible causes, and meanings behind objective factors. The interview is one technique of discovering the processes by which pupils arrive at the solution of arithmetic problems or the meaning of reading. Errors and questionable habits are discovered which are never revealed in paper and pencil tests.

Principles of Good Interview Technique

After the purpose for having the interview is clearly established, the interviewer will do well to make careful preliminary preparation. A series of questions should be formulated and memorized, although the manner in which they are asked will vary according to the degree of standardization desired. Completely standardized questions and the manner of asking them are described as "patterned interviews" and are designed to eliminate guesswork or to provide a greater uniformity of results. Such an interview is illustrated in the Stanford Revision

of the Binet. Generally, this kind of interview is reserved for the specialist. Teachers will be much more successful if they ask prepared questions in an indirect, informal, non-stereotyped, and conversational manner. The more nearly a pupil tells his story without being forced or directed by suggestive questions, the more successful are the results.

The validity and reliability depend greatly upon the degree of rapport between the interviewer and the interviewee. The pupil must have complete confidence in the teacher, because if he conceals or distorts facts and feelings, the validity of the whole process is destroyed. The good interviewer is adept at setting the pupil at ease by being diplomatic, naturally sympathetic, kind, and making the pupil think he is important. Rapport does not exist if the interview takes place in an emotionalized atmosphere of fear, anger, or blame. Rapport will be encouraged if the interviewer can have the element of privacy.

Rapport is entirely destroyed in an atmosphere of exhortation. Direct and rapid questioning may arouse antagonism and resentment. Poor results are general when the interview is used to force a confession of guilt or responsibility for misdemeanors, carelessness, or indifference. In a good interview the pupil talks freely, volunteers information, relates his experiences, presents his personal problems, and explains incidents.

Although it is requisite to make a written record, the interviewer should do as little writing as possible during the interview. For those who find it difficult to remember facts it is permissible to write a key word symbol for a fact, but the thread of conversation should not be broken. A detailed written summary of the information secured should be made as soon after the interview as possible.

To guarantee the aforementioned principles it is sometimes necessary to hold several interviews with the pupil. The first one may be for the purpose of establishing rapport and laying the groundwork for succeeding conferences. This is frequently called a *diagnostic interview*, in which information is obtained about name, date of birth, family facts, and educational and vocational experience. Subsequent interviews should discover the onset and genesis of personality problems, the causes that gave rise to them,

and their present degree of seriousness. Data are to be studied in terms of the pupil's intelligence, adjustments, education, and environment.

The Interview with the Pupil

The interview has been a popular instrument of research with young children who are unable to read a questionnaire or understand written directions. Numerous examples could be given of a variety of studies in the subject areas, but space permits the citing of only two. Huang and Lee (21) used interviews in an experimental study of child animism. Twenty children, ranging in age from 6 to 8, were asked questions about a dog, tree, stone, pencil, bicycle, ball, automobile, water, and the moon. The children indicated whether they believed the object was living, felt pain when pricked, was capable of wanting, could be good, had anything it must do (function), and performed this purposefully. The data were analyzed in terms of animistic beliefs and in relation to age. In another study Witty, Coomer, and McBean (70) interviewed children in the kindergarten and the first three grades to ascertain favorite books and stories. The children's selections agreed closely with the lists of books chosen for them by adults. Maturation of interests was observed from grade to grade.

The majority of interviews with pupils in the elementary grades are in the form of short informal teacher-pupil conversations. The teacher has not planned them, but rather uses them in the routine of her daily teaching procedures. Perhaps more could be accomplished if they were carefully planned for purpose and for use of results. The teacher uses interviews to aid her pupil in making self-evaluation of progress. This technique is becoming more frequent in preparing periodic reports to parents instead of the old-fashioned "graded" report card. The technique is also perhaps the most valuable in diagnosing the pupil's difficulties in the skill subjects.

In the following examples of the teacher-pupil interview we see the teacher's attempts to learn something about the child. Note particularly the presence of rapport and natural informality:

After the physical and mental tests were given, I held an interview with Margaret. I heard her bragging to another child that she earned her own money.

TEACHER: I think it's fine that you can earn money. Not many boys and girls do that. What do you do?

PUPIL: Oh, I bring a little girl to school and take her home.

TEACHER: How old is the little girl?

PUPIL: Sue is 5 years old.

TEACHER: How far does Sue live from school?

PUPIL: Eight blocks. But she doesn't know when to cross the street.

TEACHER: Do you know the traffic signs?

PUPIL: Oh, yes. I know we must always walk between the white lines and watch for the signals. Green means to cross and red means to stop. Sue doesn't know this yet, and she gets mad at me when I take her hand.

TEACHER: Do you get angry at her because she doesn't want you to help her?

PUPIL: Oh, no! Sue is a *little girl* and doesn't know any better.

TEACHER: I'm glad you are doing something to help others.

PUPIL: Can I bring Sue to see you some afternoon before she goes home?

TEACHER: Yes, if her mother says you may.

PUPIL: All right. Good night.

This interview, which took place in November, was the first time Margaret had voluntarily called "good night."

Interviews with the Parents

Conscientious teachers are usually able to meet the parents of their children, even at the inconvenience of meeting them at noon hour at their place of work. Even those few parents who have little interest in their children or privately reject them will rarely refuse to talk to the teacher about them. A friendly and receptive teacher who combines an interest with a sense of professional responsibility and patience can arrange successful informal interviews with one or both parents. Intimate details concerning home lives can rarely be obtained in the first interview. Frequent continuous contact, where parents can observe the teacher's close relationship with their children and her interest in them, makes parents feel at ease with the teacher.

The following accounts of interviews are not unusual, and they illustrate their value in learning more about children:

I had tried to get a conference several times with Mr. S., but he was always too busy. Finally I went to the house.

TEACHER: How do you do, Mr. S. I am Don's teacher.

MR. S.: What has Don done now?

TEACHER: I really don't know; you see, Don hasn't been to school all week.

MR. S.: He hasn't?

TEACHER: No, and I took this opportunity to meet you.

MR. S.: Well, I don't know what I can do. I call Don when I leave for work; if he doesn't get up, I can't help it.

TEACHER: Don may go back to sleep. Could you see that he is out of bed before you leave?

MR. S.: Yes, I could; I want him to go to school, but I have my hands full trying to earn a living for the children. My wife died when the baby was two weeks old; I have had to be father and mother both.

TEACHER: I am sorry, you certainly have had your hands full.

MR. S.: The children are always getting into trouble.

TEACHER: Children do need a lot of care. Don seems to like school. I think he would come if you could see that he gets out of bed in the mornings.

MR. S.: Well I can do that, but usually teachers come to tell me what Don has done. I think during school hours that the teacher should be responsible for him. I have enough to do to take care of the kids the rest of the time.

TEACHER: I am sure you do. Thank you for letting me come. Good day.

Don has not been absent since; hence the father is helping. I had a conference with an older sister two weeks ago. The sister had just moved back home with the father; she said her father needed her help more than the married sister, with whom she had been staying. She said, "Don is always dirty, but there is nothing I can do. He won't mind me."

I said, "Don't order him to wash and comb; just remind him in a nice way each morning. I feel sure he intends to wash but just forgets."

After this conference Don's appearance has improved a great deal, I invited Don's married sister to our mothers' tea. She is a pretty, sweet young woman. She stayed after the tea and thanked me for helping Don so much. She said he even looks better. Don eats dinner each day

at her home. The next evening I received a telephone call at my home; it was Don's father.

Mr. S.: Hello, this is Don's father, I called to thank you for everything you have done for Don.

TEACHER: Don has done it himself. I just gave him a little encouragement.

Mr. S.: But his attitude is much better around home; he seems happier and helps more around the house.

TEACHER: I am very happy to hear that he has improved at home, too.

Mr. S.: Well, thank you again. Goodbye.

Don's personality has improved with his appearance. The children accept him more and more, and his work in school has improved. This child needed love and understanding and a feeling of being wanted.

REPORT OF A PARENT-TEACHER CONFERENCE

I called Benny's mother, asked how she was, remarked about the beautiful weather, etc., and then said, "I've missed Benny. Has he been having trouble with asthma again?" She said, "Yes, he has been so choked up and miserable I didn't want to send him. He was determined he was going anyway, Friday. In fact he ran clear down the street before I caught him and brought him back." I said, "Oh, I'm so glad he likes school." She said, "Oh, he likes it fine now and I'll sure be glad when I can send him back. He worries me so, teasing the smaller children. He is mischievous, too. The other night he wrote all over the front-room wall with a pencil. We had just cleaned the wallpaper. He knows better than that. I spanked him real hard. I'll bet you have a time with him at school." I said, "Well, I believe I understand him better than I used to, and we're getting along fine. He likes to help me. Last week he took splendid care of our pet turtles." She remarked, "Yes, he's always wanting to do something, but I'm so busy with my little ones I can't bother with him all the time." I said, "Yes, I guess your hands are really full." She said, "His grandmother used to spend lots of time with him. She died last year. He felt awfully bad." (This was something I hadn't heard about.) I said, "Oh, did she live with you?" She said, "Yes, she had been with us since before Benny was born." Then she said, "Benny's daddy bought him a dog the other day. He's just thrilled to death about it, but he handles it so much I'm afraid he'll make it sick." I said, "Oh, I'm glad he has a dog. Every boy likes and needs a dog." (This seems a wonderful move to me. A dog will probably love Benny and satisfy some of that hunger for affection.)

Then I mentioned that I believed it was her husband who used to work for a friend of mine. She seemed delighted. Her husband apparently thinks a great deal of this friend, so I said, "Mr. X is ill and confined to a wheel chair now; why don't you tell your husband to come and see him? He would surely appreciate a visit from him. Let Benny come too, and bring his puppy." She seemed very pleased and said she would talk to her husband.

Our conversation ended on a very pleasant note. I hope it will open the way for more contacts.

ANOTHER PARENT-TEACHER CONFERENCE

One of my pupils, Larry, is very nervous and upset all the time—so nervous that he stutters. I called his mother and asked if she would come and see me. She was very upset to hear that her child was stuttering. Larry was the oldest child and had a little sister of 5.

His mother came to see me and told me a little about her home life. She belonged to a lot of clubs and civic activities. She said she was most always besieged by telephone calls. There were household duties to attend to and the younger child to take care of. As a result, the mother was nervous and high-strung. When the children demanded attention she scolded them, and sometimes she admitted she yelled at them, particularly Larry. She and her husband felt that Larry should have certain responsibilities. Before going to school he should make his bed, shine his shoes, brush his teeth, comb his hair, and fold his pajamas. Larry invariably forgot. He always wanted to dash out and play. She says she must constantly nag him in order to have him perform these simple tasks. His grades were very poor, and this worried his father, for he had always been an excellent student. He made Larry sit down for an hour every afternoon and do his lessons. This, oddly enough, did not improve his grades. This hurt them, for of course they wanted him to do well. Somehow, she said, they got into the habit of teasing him about being stupid.

"Larry, you don't even spell as well as Anne next door, and she is only in the second grade," they would tell him, or they would say, "Good gracious, son, I don't know from whom you inherited your weak brain." Larry was always defiant after such remarks. I told them that at any time I called on Larry he stuttered badly. The mother said she remembered she had said to Larry, "Hurry up and say it, Larry. I can't wait all day." Or when he apparently hadn't been thinking about what he was saying, she'd storm, "Don't talk unless you know what you want to say." This happened more often on the days when she didn't feel well or when Larry was very tired.

I think that Larry stutters because he feels unhappy and insecure. His stuttering indicates an emotional conflict arising from his speech. They are expecting too much of him. They have forced him to do things against his will. Actually Larry is a healthy, normal child who should not have any tendency to stutter. In a speech class I have taken, the teacher told us many more boys than girls stutter; and also that in certain periods of their life they should not feel extra strain. These periods are when the child first begins to talk, at five and seven years of age, when he has his first experience with school and leaves his mother for longer periods of the day, and at the beginning of adolescence.

I talked to the mother again today; they are sending Larry to a speech class twice a week, and she admits that the main responsibility rests with herself and her husband. They have slowed down their life and thus slowed down the pace for their children, too. This they did at my suggestion. Larry is encouraged to talk about anything he wants to, and they do not substitute words for him when he is tired or excited. They do not argue at the dinner table, but relax and enjoy their food.

JOHN

Background: John, age 9, has a twin in another fourth grade in the school. He is of average intelligence and has a likable personality. He is a healthy child and has an unlimited amount of physical energy. The children all like John, but they resent the way he bullies and pushes them around. He has openly defied almost every teacher in our building. Every teacher knows John.

Aims of Conference: To see if something could be worked out with the parents about John's behavior in school. I have met his mother upon several occasions, and we seem to be on very good terms. She never has blamed a teacher or the school for John's trouble. I felt that I was in safe territory to discuss his latest misbehaviors. John's mother arrived at 2:30, just as my pupils were going out to recess. I used the ten minutes to discuss her husband's condition (he has been very ill) and to ask about her youngest child. She visited our class and watched them work. We were drawing horses, and John's turned out better than usual. At 3:30 I dismissed my class and then sat at the library table with John's mother. I opened with John's art.

"That is the best piece of work that John has done."

"Yes, it is good. But I never knew he could draw. He never does at home."

"Well, perhaps you ought to encourage him to do more drawing at home."

"It's an idea. Then maybe he wouldn't have so much time to fight

with the other kids. Sometimes I could just beat the daylight out of him. It's more than I can stand when the three of them go at it."

"Is it always John's fault?" I questioned (trying to see if he always started things at home, as he seems to do at school).

"Well, it always seems to be. I guess the other two add their part, but John seems to start it."

"Maybe he's doing it to get attention." There must be a reason. I was hoping she would offer to tell me what she thought was the trouble.

"I guess that could be it. I guess I pick on him more than Gloria and maybe I don't give him the attention I give the other children. But he is the oldest and he shouldn't expect so much."

At this point, Mr. C., the principal, came in, and our conversation was interrupted. She had to hurry because of her husband. I promised to telephone in a day or two.

There is no substitute for personal contact in establishing good parent-teacher relationships. Often the confidence of the parent is gained through a visit to the home by an interested teacher. It is well to keep in mind that parents consider a teacher a representative of the school and tend to judge the school by the teacher's actions and words. A teacher, therefore, should understand the school program, its policies, its objectives, and its philosophy and be in sympathy with them. Otherwise, she can do irreparable damage and injustice to the school and the school staff. Any appearance of fact-finding should be avoided; the parent will usually volunteer considerable information that will be helpful in working with the pupil. Any teacher who undertakes a home visit should be well grounded in the techniques of counseling and interviewing.

Studying the Child Through the Products of His Activity

Although *product* is generally indicative of achievement, there are possibilities of studying the more subjective elements of child personality by an examination of products of composition writing, dancing, music, and especially the graphic arts. Certain evaluative devices have been constructed to review products in terms of their component features or desirable characteristics, or in terms of their unitary general merit. These product-evalu-

ation devices serve as a means of systematizing and organizing judgments concerning the product. This is illustrated in estimating the quality of a pupil's handwriting or of a woodwork product.

Several scales are available for judging the pupil's achievement in handwriting. Thorndike's handwriting scale (34) is the oldest of these. It is used by putting the specimen of handwriting to be evaluated beside the scale and determining to what point in the scale it is nearest. The Ayres Handwriting Scale (10) substitutes legibility for Thorndike's general merit as the criterion of quality, assuming that legibility is both more functional and more objectively scorable. Freeman's Chart for Diagnosing Faults in Handwriting (14) considers five features: uniformity of slant, uniformity of alignment, quality of line, letter formation, and spacing.

Quality scales for composition writing are obtainable for narration, description, exposition, and argumentation. One of the earlier scales, however, the Willing Scale for Written Composition (39) in Grades IV to VIII, includes only narrative composition. It takes account of the correlation of rhetorical and formal qualities in the samples by including for each scale value the number of mistakes in spelling, punctuation, and syntax per 100 words. Because all product-evaluation scales require thorough study and training in their use, the average classroom teacher prefers to see samples of the product itself which have been collected and saved from year to year.

The product of a child's achievement in his application of information, skill, or understanding cannot always be measured in terms of tests or verbal descriptions. To understand the child it is often necessary, therefore, to see the product itself. There are many products, of course, which are perishable (in the case of flower arrangement) or too bulky (in the case of a piece of woodwork or metalwork) to keep for permanent record. As for products wanted by the pupil or too bulky to keep in the cumulative record, teachers have found it possible to keep a record through photographs.

A sixth-grade teacher who can view a specimen of her pupil's handwriting when he was in the third grade, another specimen

from the fourth grade, and still another from the fifth can quickly make an estimate of his progress or lack of progress through the years. Specimens of composition writing, of graphic arts, or arithmetic problems are all most valuable to the teacher in studying the child. None of these are too cumbersome for cumulative evaluation, and they can conveniently find their place in the "pupil's kit" which is rapidly taking the place of the traditional cumulative card.

SUMMARY

Methods of studying the child may be classified as incidental observation, biography, systematic observation, questionnaire, psychoanalysis, case history, direct measurement and simple tests, tests of complex functions, ratings, random and controlled experiment, control by statistical devices, and factor analysis.

Although it is by nature subjective and somewhat unreliable when considered in isolation, the self-inventory can yield information about a pupil that can scarcely be found in another manner. The autobiography is not always trustworthy as a statement of facts, but it is useful as a diagnostic and therapeutic tool and as a basis for rapport in interviews. Rich data can sometimes be obtained respecting the operation of effects of repression. The most frequently used of all techniques in studying the child is the questionnaire. If the qualities of honesty, sincerity, frankness, and insight are assured, the questionnaire can be of real help to the guidance worker. Rating scales are also increasingly used and are valuable if care is taken in their construction. When a teacher constructs a rating scale for her pupils, she should follow two major steps: (1) the analysis of the pupil's adjustment into specific habits or modes of behavior, and (2) the provision of various levels of descriptions for each trait or mode. Rating scales are of three types: descriptive, numerical, and graphic.

The anecdotal record, defined as a written description of actual behavior taking place in situations as noted by the teacher, can be roughly classified as records of incidental observations, time-sampling observations, out-of-school observations, stenographic reporting, phonograph or wire recordings, and films and photographs.

A good anecdote has a clear separation between exactly what is observed and its interpretation. A cumulation of anecdotes should be properly balanced between desirable, normal behavior and undesirable or problem behavior. There should be many anecdotes for each pupil made by as many different observers as possible.

The essential administrative features of a successful anecdotal-record system are (1) enlisting coöperation of the teachers, (2) deciding how much and what is to be recorded, (3) preparing forms, (4) obtaining the original anecdotes, (5) filing the records, and (6) summarizing. The limitations of anecdotal records may be listed as their subjective nature, unguarded prejudice, time for recording and summarizing, and a tendency to encourage dangerous short cuts to the adjustment process.

There has been found no substitute for personal contact in the form of an interview. The tangible products of achievement are also invaluable. Specimens of handwriting, graphic arts, arithmetic problems, and so forth are all suitable media for evaluation. Many teachers are using the case history as an instrument of child study.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. Which of the three types of rating scales do you prefer:
(a) descriptive, (b) numerical, (c) graphic? Why?
2. What are the advantages and limitations of any procedure which permits pupils to evaluate one another?
3. How can a good anecdotal record be distinguished from a poor one?
4. Describe the details of the time-sampling method of observation.
5. What are some of the possible techniques for securing rapport in an interview?
6. What is a diagnostic interview? A therapeutic interview?
7. Should a teacher make a case study of every child in her classroom? Why?
8. Can a scale for evaluating the product of a child's achievement be standardized? Explain.
9. List the steps in making a case study. What steps would you add?
10. What are the strengths and weaknesses of "The Case of Dickie" described in this chapter?

CHAPTER 4

Use of Projective and Expressive Techniques for Guiding the Child

INTRODUCTION: THE IMPLICATIONS OF PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUES FOR GUIDANCE

Projective techniques are devices for the clinician in helping him to diagnose the individual personality; their use as a diagnostic medium should be limited exclusively to the clinician and psychiatrist. What, then, can be the purpose of devoting a chapter in a book on guidance to their consideration? Two major justifications may be cited.

In the first place, a teacher should understand and appreciate these techniques. It is hoped that no teacher will be guilty of the ignorance of one classroom teacher who told a friend that the clinician told her he was going "to administer an electric shock and follow it up with a tête-à-tête," when actually he had said, "I shall first administer a Rorschach and perhaps follow it up with a TAT." Appreciating the work of a specialist, the teacher is willing to give him aid and support and to follow his recommendations whole-heartedly. Attitudes and appreciations may be developed in the fields of clinical psychology and psychia-

try, just as they may be developed in art and music, without intensive study of techniques. Every teacher interested in guidance should read at least two or three books in the field of "projective psychology," not with a view to becoming a specialist in the method, but with a desire to developing appreciation of their use.

In the second place, a teacher can use the projective technique in her teaching. The basic philosophy underlying the teaching of art, music, drama, recreation—that is, the expressive or creative phases of education—is projective in nature. Drawing and painting, for example, should be an expression of the inner feeling of the individual rather than an imitation of what someone else has drawn or painted. The expressions in art serve as a release of tension within the organism, and to that extent are an outward manifestation of the emotions. To that extent, too, they are therapeutic and conducive to good mental hygiene. A teacher who permits her pupil to express himself with finger-paint need not be concerned so much with the diagnostic possibilities of the medium as with the therapeutic possibilities. Neither must she be too concerned with the question, "Has expression in finger-painting been of real emotional benefit?" This is a question of validity, and to expect the classroom teacher to establish it statistically is foolish indeed. Were a teacher required to prove scientifically every procedure of her day's work from a reliable and valid standpoint, she could not be a teacher. A teacher must work in a general, broad framework of philosophy and a certain faith in human nature. Evaluation is important, but, as we observed in Chapter 3, it cannot always be made in terms of so-called objective, statistically determined standards of measurement. In many of her activities the teacher must be satisfied that pupils are being benefited in ways not measurable by immediately tangible results. Even when used by the experienced clinician, projective techniques rely on subjective judgment for scoring and interpretation. The classroom teacher need not feel chagrined or insecure, then, if she borrows some of the philosophy, theory, and even the techniques and uses what she gleans for her own purposes.

Definition of Terms

A projective method of studying the child is to present him with a word, a sentence, a picture, a written problem, in fact anything which may be called a stimulus situation, with which he is unfamiliar. He is then asked to make a response to the situation, and as he does so the examiner watches him closely for clues which reveal his private world of meanings, his values, and his feelings. The projective method is the chief procedure thus far evolved which permits the examiner to study the child as a dynamic whole.

The definition proposed here will permit the inclusion of any psychological test as projective, providing the examiner is looking not for specific objective answers to the individual test items but for behavioral patterns which reveal the child's personality structure and inner world. For example, the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Test is essentially an instrument for measuring intelligence, but it has also been found useful in revealing impairment of mental functions and its effect on personality.

The process of projection is unconscious; and in attributing to others unconscious feelings, ideas, and attitudes, there may be released a certain tension which gives temporary relief. On the other hand, it may have the effect of accumulating even more tension. The real significance of the projective technique can be understood more readily if we think of the meaning of the word "projective" as it was originally used by Freud. Psychologically speaking, projection means to project to the outside world certain unconscious wishes and ideas which if conscious would be painful to the ego. A boy, for example, unconsciously hates his father, but his conscience will not permit him to hate overtly a person whom society rules he should love. In an imaginary play situation, however, the boy may mold an image of his father from a piece of clay; then, with another clay image representing himself, he may permit himself to trounce his father unmercifully. In a play situation the boy reveals his real inner self; that is, his real feelings, wishes, or ideas.

Any classification of projective techniques will be artificial

because our purpose is not concerned with classifications of traits but rather with the total personality. The word "expressive" is more appropriate because it is a traditional adjective used to describe the kind of drawing, painting, and drama we have in mind; that is, the projection of inner feelings (moods) in the form of an artistic or dramatic product and behavior. We likewise consider sentence completion, storytelling, and story completion as oral and written expression. Certain forms of drama and play may also be described as expressive. The Rorschach Test, Cloud Pictures, the Morgan-Murray Thematic Apperception Test, and the Szondi Test we classify as visual-stimulus techniques: although they, too, may require expressive behavior, they have, more than the other situations, characteristics of the creative techniques. Space will not permit us to consider all of the projective techniques reported as successful by examiners, but those most frequently used are adequately represented.

Campbell has made a pertinent observation regarding projective tests. The "rubric *projective*, once useful in mobilizing a reaction against older diagnostic procedures, has been stretched to include such a heterogeneous variety of measures that its denotational value has become attenuated" (12:208). To clarify the situation this writer divides personality tests into three categories: (1) voluntary versus objective, in which the respondent is encouraged in idiosyncrasy and self-description; (2) indirect versus direct, in which the respondent's understanding of the purpose of the test and the psychologist's understanding are in agreement; and (3) free-response versus structured, in which the tests have been open-ended, free, unstructured, and have the merit of allowing the respondent to project his own organization upon the material.

STUDYING THE CHILD BY MEANS OF HIS ORAL AND WRITTEN EXPRESSION

Sentence Completion as a Projective Technique

Sentence completion is one of the oldest forms of objective testing and is still a popular method of presenting items in the intelligence test. Those psychologists who made original use of

the test considered it a mental and reasoning measure rather than a measure of personality. Contemporary psychologists, however, claim that it has advantages over the interview, questionnaire, and inventory. These techniques, they say, use a direct-questioning procedure which makes the individual so self-conscious that he will not reveal his true self (41). Then, too, they suggest the answer in the question. As with all other projective techniques, sentence completion diverts the attention of the child from himself and may lead him to divulge deep-seated feelings and tendencies of which he is unaware. In one sentence-completion form, for example, the examiner is asked to look for such general patterns as (1) persistence (keeping on with a task in spite of failure and discomfort); (2) striving for success; (3) feelings of inferiority, doubt, worry; (4) depression (discouragement following failure); (5) high standards; and (6) emotional stability in stressful situations (49).

In another form, the sentences used were selected to contribute information relevant to one of these ten areas of personality: (1) family (the child's attitude toward the family unit and toward each parent); (2) past (the child's attitude toward the past, his reactions to previous frustrations and failures, and the effect of past experiences on his present behavior); (3) drive (the primary motivating factor in a child's personality); (4) inner states (the feelings which a child experiences most frequently and the nature of the situations that arouse such feelings); (5) goals (the ends toward which a child is striving); (6) cathexis (objects, activities, or ideas which the child desires and for which he is willing to make sacrifices); (7) energy (the energy level of a child and how it is affected by stress and frustration); (8) time perspective (a child's attitude toward the past, present, and future); (9) reactions to others (a child's attitude toward his inferiors, his equals, and his superiors); and (10) reactions of others (a child's impression of how others feel toward him) (36).

The most common form of the sentence-completion test presents the beginning of an incomplete sentence, and the child is asked to write anything he wishes to complete the sentence. This is an extension of the one-word free-association test (49). If the pupil responds with good rapport in an unconstrained

manner, he supposedly reveals his true self because he has no way of anticipating the importance of his answers to the total personality pattern. The method cannot be used to differentiate good and poor adjustment by any direct comparison of items or by psychometric methods (49:320). Rather, the interpretation must be made by trends and patterns which support evidence gathered by interviews, rating scales, and other methods of personality study.

A good illustration for interpreting a sentence-completion test is offered in a study by Harris and Tseng (27) to determine attitude toward peers and parents. From a series of 32 sentences some 10 were selected by an empirical procedure for inclusion in a battery. The sentences were scored by the simple expedient of evaluating the completions in terms of the positive, negative, or neutral effect of the response. For example, to the sentence "Most boys are——," the response may be "nice," "mean," or "tall."

Sample Sentences Taken from Sentence-Completion Tests

We shall present here sample questions from two representative tests: the first was developed in the Office of Strategic Services Assessment Program, and the second is an extension of the Payne Sentence Completion Blank by Rohde and Hildreth. The first is reported as being successfully used with adults, the second with children as young as 12 years old (41, 32, 42).

Directions: Here are a series of incomplete sentences which I would like you to complete as rapidly as possible with the first thing that comes to your mind. Sometimes you will find that a single word will complete the sentence and sometimes you will find that a brief phrase will do. I should prefer a brief phrase, but if a word is all you can think of, then that will be sufficient. You have only ten minutes within which to complete the test so you have to work as rapidly as possible. [Sample sentences selected at random.]

My greatest fear is
I admire
A person's life
I try hard
I usually feel awkward when

Nothing is so frustrating as
 People think of me as
 I always wanted to be
 I take pains
 My family
 My greatest worry is
 If I would only
 I often
 I dream a great deal about
 My worst fault
 I enjoy
 It is embarrassing
 The main thing in my life
 I suffer most from
 I often think about
 I was happiest when
 My goals (12)

The Rhode-Hildreth Sentence Completion Blank is arranged as a four-page folder. On the cover page is reserved a space for identification data and for a summary of the test findings. A code system may be used if the examiner prefers to instruct examinees not to write their names on the blanks.

. . . It is recommended that the questionnaire be used during a regular class period. . . . The examiner instructs the students to complete the sentences that are partially begun and informs them that any response they care to make to any item will be entirely acceptable. There is no time limit.

. . . Its use as a group device does not invalidate the results for individual diagnosis. . . . Following the last item there is a blank space with the instructions: Write below anything that seems important to you. [Sample sentences selected at random.]

My school work
 I want to know
 There are times
 My greatest longing
 Girls
 Earning my living
 At night
 I cannot understand what makes me
 My father

When I
 Death
 My eyes
 Love
 At home
 I become embarrassed(42)

Below are examples of completed sentences taken from sentence-completion tests informally made by a classroom teacher. It is remarkable how a person, a total stranger to the child, can obtain information difficult to gain by other media.

From a fourth grade:

I wish that I (could do my school work good).
 I don't like to (do things I'm not used to do).
 I was sorry when (my mother went away).
 I wish I didn't (do my numbers wrong).
 The meanest thing I ever did (was play all day in school).
 I am glad when (I can help).

From a seventh grade:

My mother is (very good to me and my brother too).
 Father is (good to me and takes me places).
 I am afraid (when I have to get up in front of people).
 I cried (when I feel bad).
 When I get angry (I lose my temper).
 I hate (to hear things that aren't good).
 I am the happiest (when I am going hunting for fish).
 I felt bad (when my friend went away).
 I feel sorry (for my friend when he went to the store and got hit).
 My greatest desire (is sports and to go camping and hunting).

Studying the Child Through Oral and Written Storytelling and Composition

Entire courses have been planned and conducted in high school and university literature classes centered about the theme of studying an author through an analysis of what he has written. The author's personality, his ideas about society, about the Deity, about politics, about government, about love—all these are familiar topics of discussion. Regardless of the reliability and validity of the procedure, most teachers develop an opinion about

each of their children because of what they say and write. Essentially this is the essence of all projective techniques, but we shall give the topic special consideration here because of convenience and because it may offer new inspiration and ideas for experimentation. We shall divide our discussion of storytelling and story completion into two categories: first, as they are used by the clinician, and second, as they are used by the classroom teacher.

Clinical Procedures

THE STORYTELLING METHOD. For young children it is essential that the expression be oral. Even with older children who have learned how to write, spontaneity is best assured with oral rather than written composition. In clinical work the technique may be illustrated by the studies of Despert (16), who used storytelling methods with children from 4 to 13 years of age who were reportedly having primary behavior disorders. These children were asked to tell three different types of stories: first, any popular story such as "Goldilocks and the Three Bears," any "story you like best of all you have ever heard or read"; second, any story the child wished to make up, a story about a boy or girl, or a story about a father, a mother, and their children; third, a story based on "The Story of John and Mary" made up by the clinician, who gave only the facts rather than the emotions of the characters.

It is reported that a common theme, determined by the children's conflicts, ran through all the stories told by an individual child. Furthermore, the younger children told more fragmentary narratives colored with a greater emotional tone. By listening to the stories it was possible to learn something about the child's anxiety, his wishes, and his fears of what he might do.

In another situation the clinician created a moral conflict in children and evaluated the effect of the conflict by analysis of play and stories. Children were asked to give away one of two dolls, the one very attractive and the other most unattractive. The child was then asked to tell a story about one of the dolls. In this experiment the children told stories that predominantly reflected conflict after a conflict situation. Their stories used

themes of punishment and destruction, and one in which the undesirable toy given away was made the most attractive. In a nonconflict situation the stories were different, mostly descriptive of, or realistically evaluating, the dolls (54).

Children's interest in comic strips has been used as the theme for storytelling with reported success. In one experiment children were asked to list their favorite comic-strip characters, to describe what had been happening, and to make up an original story about the characters. A discrepancy was found between what the child wanted the hero to do and the newspaper version. The clinicians described this as evidence of the degree to which a child may retreat into a private fantasy world rather than maintain a realistic attitude toward life (24).

THE STORY-COMPLETION METHOD. This has the advantage of controlling or directing the response to some extent. The possible disadvantage lies in the fact that it may restrict spontaneous self-expression. The evident problem is to give the pupil as unstructured a stimulus as possible without any hint or suggestion of an ending. We may begin the discussion of this technique by citing a story-completion test applicable to the exploration of the emotional attachment of children to their parents (55). A group of delinquent boys averaging $13\frac{1}{2}$ years of age was asked to finish the following story:

It was a bright sunny day and Frankie was in his drawing class painting a small house. Just then a monitor walked in and Frankie was called to the principal's office. As he came in the principal said: "We just got a call from your home, Frankie. Your parents have had a pretty bad accident. You may leave for home at once if you want to." But, just as Frankie was leaving, the telephone rang and the principal answered. Then he called out. "Just a minute, Frankie. Your best friend was just hit by an auto and needs an immediate blood transfusion. They want you to get down to the hospital right away." Then.....(55)

A second story presented a boy on a theater stage faced with the problem of choosing between a prize in a red box and a prize in a green box. The parents shouted "green" and the friends "red." The clinician's purpose was to check the relative strength of parental-versus-friend influence. A third story used

to check the effectiveness of parental influence told of a boy named Jim who had been caught stealing and then given a lecture by his father. Later, Jim and his pal were walking down the street, and the friend suggested stealing. The investigator found in this study that delinquents and nondelinquents responded differently in completing these stories.

Roody (43) constructed a plot-completion test for the purpose of analyzing the pupil's attitude toward fictitious situations and toward his own life problems. The test also provides a crude measure of the ability to grasp all the facts in a given situation, to evaluate suggested solutions in light of the pupil's past experience, and to select a realistic solution. Finally it may be used to judge the pupil's approach to life's problems in a scientific manner (36, 44).

Classroom Methods

The psychodrama is a form of oral expression, and its modification for use by the classroom teacher is discussed in later pages. We will, therefore, limit our discussion at this point to certain forms of written expression which teachers have found valuable in their guidance of pupils. Almost any form of written expression will reflect the personality of the writer. That a teacher with a definite purpose can direct her pupils into writing activities which will reflect their emotions, wishes, and interests is readily illustrated in the following examples:

IF

(By a sixth grade girl)

If I had 100 dollars I would either save it for a horse or cattle ranch, or for the down payment on an Arabian or an Appaloosa horse. I love high-schooled horses, I would buy a sorrel for my father, and a Palomino mare. For my horse who is beginning to grow rather old, and for all she has done for me, I would put her in knee deep grass in the summer if I could, and buy her some hay in the winter and give her all the oats she wanted.

IF

(By a sixth-grade boy)

If I had 100 dollars I would buy my Mother a new dress and a new

pair of shoes. I would buy me a 15-gauge shotgun, and a water spaniel. I would buy my brother some parts for his car, and Daddy some tools for his station. Then I would put the rest in the bank.

MY LIFE

(By a sixth-grade boy)

In 19— I came into the world fat and tubby. I was born in _____. When I was three weeks old I moved to Ocean City. Here I saw my first football game. I was only 8 months old. I lived on 13th East and was always happy with the surroundings. During this time I got two things, a car I could pedal, and a baby brother to play with.

We moved to three different places in the same year. Then we moved to Jamesville. It was here I learned to fly a kite and how to make airplanes. We lived in the Weber College dormitory. One day I locked Jack (that's my brother) in the top of the dorm and told him to jump out of the window. Mother and Dad knocked the door down just in time to get him. While I was in this city I won a prize for—shall we say cutest baby. My picture went to the nationals and I won fourth prize there.

When I was 3 my father was called into the army so we had to move again, this time to California. Just about every night while we were there they had blackouts. Once I was caught in the bathtub. When I was 4 we moved to Oklahoma where I could run around with my shirt off. We got us a new car here too. A year later Dad had to go overseas so we went back to Jamesville. There I lived for a year until he came home.

A STORY COMPLETED

(By a fourth-grade boy)

I saw a little boy in the street. He was very dirty. I (said to him, "come here little boy." and he said, "you come over here, I don't like to go out in the street." I went over to him and said, "I would like to help you if, I can any way, but if you go home and come back tomorrow. I will bring some soap for you and. I will put it in a box for you." Mother said to me, "what was that?" and I said to her, "It was a boy.")

A STORY COMPLETED

(By a fourth-grade girl)

I saw a little boy in the street. He was very dirty. I (felt very sorry for him I wish he could buy some new clothes for himself. The boy

was from Europe. He was a poor boy. He does not know how to talk but we will help him learn.)

A STORY COMPLETED

(By a fifth-grade boy)

Nisho was a little Japanese boy who lived on a farm with his father and mother. (Nisho took care of the pigs, chickens, horses, cows, sheep, and goats. One day Nisho went for a walk. He had just moved to American from Japan. He didn't go to shoal because he did not know how to talk our language. So he went to a man who could speak. Japanese and English. He was taught to talk. As I said before he went for a walk. He met a little boy who was a first grade. But the little boy did not know Nisho so he ran away. Soon after that Nisho went to school. He went to my school and soon was the smartest one in the room. He moved right next door to me. When he came over to play with me I was glad and my mother gave him some cookies.)

DREAMING

(By a sixth-grade girl)

Gosh, sometimes I want to run away
To see the sights from here to Timbuctoo.
Maybe even be a captain and give the orders to be done
Gosh, if I could only run away!
I'd love to see the land away across the sea,
To see the kings and all the people.
But gee, I'm scared to run away!
Maybe I'd get lost!
That wouldn't be so good and poor Mom
Would worry her head off,
And I wouldn't want that to happen.
So I guess I'll just have to dream.

SHADOWS

(By a sixth-grade boy)

The shadows paint queer pictures in my fancy.
I'm frightened by a lumbering dancing bear.
A stick becomes a wriggling snake.
I run—you silly!
Course there's nothing really there.
I see a monkey begging passers by for money.

A stump looks like a pirate bold.
I see Columbus' ship a sailing on the ocean.
A post's a miser bending o'er his gold.
I really am not frightened by these shadows,
And in the dark I'm not afraid to roam.
I whistle as I turn the corner
I'm awfully brave—
Besides—I'm almost home!

SOCIODRAMA AND PSYCHODRAMA AS GUIDANCE TECHNIQUES

Sociodrama, more frequently described as role-playing, is a form of spontaneous dramatization in which individuals play a role in a specific social situation. Sociodrama is an outgrowth or modification of psychodrama, originated in 1922 in a Viennese theater dedicated to the spontaneous drama. In 1928 its originator, J. L. Moreno, continued his work in New York, where it has expanded and thrived until today the movement has its own theater, its own private hospital, and its own publications printed by its own press. Psychodrama requires that the subject be put on a stage (or a stage situation), where he assumes the role of himself or someone else in a particular type of situation either suggested by the director or by the actor himself. The situation specified is an imaginary one where the momentary private-life situation of the actor, his private personality, his strivings and conflicts, and his manner of behaving with members of his family and other people affecting his life all reveal data valuable for diagnosis.

The key to effective psychodrama is spontaneity, which "has the inherent tendency to be experienced by a subject as his own state, autonomous and free—free, that is, from any external influence, and free from any internal influence which he cannot control. It has, for the subject, at least, all the markings of a freely produced experience. Spontaneity is also the ability of a subject to meet each new situation with adequacy. It (spontaneity) is not only the process within the person, but also the flow of feeling in the direction of the spontaneity state of another person. From the contact between two spontaneity states

centering, naturally, in two different persons, there results an interpersonal situation" (33:81).

The roles a person plays in life must be spontaneous and capable of adjustment to the demands of the moment. In this respect psychodrama may act as a learning medium which teaches the subject to act spontaneously in a satisfactory manner. According to the psychodramatic theory, the phenomenon of spontaneity can be developed. Moreno briefly outlines the process of training as follows: The subject must first get into a state of mind which will permit him to act as if he had no past and as if his action were not determined by an organic structure. The starting point is the state into which the subject throws himself for the purpose of expression. There is always present a certain amount of tenseness in the beginning stages, but after a few moments of tension come relaxation and pause. This is called the *spontaneity state*. Once this state is reached, the subject is told to throw himself into the situation, to live through it, and to enact every detail. No movements are ever repeated; audience and subject take careful record during the performance, including the sense of relationship toward people and things. After each performance an analysis and discussion of it are opened in which audience and director take part. The final result is a flexibility and facility in meeting life situations within the organic limits of the particular individual.

The classroom teacher will note here a striking resemblance to the development of creative drama in her classroom. Briefly, the process she uses is discussion, followed by planning, followed by trial, followed by evaluation, another trial followed by evaluation, and so on. The performance progresses and improves, but never ends. The principal difference between classroom creative drama and psychodrama is that the repeated attempts at improvement encourage a certain repetition of scene, action, and words. In psychodrama no situation is ever repeated.

The real force behind the psychodrama is the director, who not only initiates the psychodramatic sessions but also plays an active role throughout their course. At the beginning of the performance he seats himself where he is easily visible to the audience and yet not at the center of the stage action. His purpose

is to establish rapport with the actor or actors and the audience, to acquaint the group with the procedures, and to initiate action that will be of use in the record.

An essential feature of the psychodrama is the warming-up period, a process which leads up to complete spontaneity. It usually consists of bodily movement, which may evoke emotional stimulation such as laughing, scowling, aggressive movements, or withdrawing movements. Bodily movement can evoke a particular kind of emotional pattern such as happiness, anger, fear, or more complex emotional states. The director has the task of assisting the participants in warming up to those emotional states.

Role-Playing as a Projective Diagnostic Test

Psychodrama as a projective diagnostic test is believed by some enthusiasts (15) to be superior to other projective methods in the manner in which it samples actual behavior of the individual as he encounters real-life obstacles in a social setting involving other people. The psychodrama test not only reveals the personality formation but also manifests the "cultural" level of the individual pupil. The testing technique consists in asking a jury to determine characteristic roles in the community in which the children live, and then to select the 15 roles most pertinent for the children to act in and understand (31).

The child is asked to enact one after the other of the 15 selected roles. The entire procedure is presented to the child as a game. Occasionally an older child serves as an audience to guess what each role is after the pupil enacts it. In order that the child be not too self-conscious in feeling that attention is being focused on him, or if he refuses to enact the roles, the older child enacts a role not included in the selected 15.

Examples from the instructions proceed somewhat like this: "Show us what a policeman does." If there is hesitation, or if the pupil indicates he has finished the role, he is then asked, "What else does he do?" If further hesitation occurs, he is then asked, "If you cannot act, tell us what he does." After the pupil describes the role correctly, he is urged again to try and enact it. If the pupil is unable to enact any of the roles, an effort is

then made to determine whether he is able to recognize them. Every role is divided into a series of meaningful acts, such as waving the arm, smiling, or walking in a characteristic manner.

The child is scored according to the number of roles he can enact; to the number of roles he perceives; to enactments below the level of recognition, where elements remotely related to the role but not sufficient for its recognition are presented; to the number of partial enactments, including one or two recognizable phases of the role; and to the number of inadequate enactments, in which all significant aspects of the roles as evaluated by the jury are included.

Role-Playing to Assist in Personality Adjustment

Role-playing as a form of therapy cannot be separated distinctly from role-playing as a method of diagnosing personality difficulties.

Role-playing places the child on a stage where he can work out his problems with the aid of a few co-actors. The crucial problem is to get the child started. In psychodrama the usual procedure is not to limit the child to a description of how he feels about his problems; rather, he has to be made to express how he feels at present, not only through words, but through gestures and movements. He is asked to live through situations which are painful and undesirable, and to take roles which may actually be obnoxious to him. His actions must be with people he loves and admires or with people whom he fears and hates.

The treatment may be open or closed. Open treatment may be described as creating a situation for the patient comparable to his real life; that is, the audience and co-actors are fully aware of the treatment being given. In a closed form of treatment the patient is taken out of his immediate environment and placed in a situation especially constructed for his needs. There is no room for an audience; only the director and a number of assistants who are assigned to principal roles are present. In either case, the patient is permitted at first to mix freely and become acquainted with all the members of the staff. Some he will like; others he will want to avoid. Later the patient is given the choice of the role and of the assistant with whom he would like to act.

The choice itself is a significant fact of diagnosis. After every situation the performance is analyzed immediately in the presence and with the help of the patient. When it becomes evident that the patient is attempting to avoid scenes and roles which are painful and unpleasant to him, he is then told in what situations and in which roles he should act (33).

The simplest of the psychodramatic techniques is to permit the patient to start with himself and live through, in the director's presence, the situations which are part of his daily life. He enacts and represents as concretely as possible the roles of every person near to him and his problems. These people would probably be his father, his mother, his sibling, his friend, or his enemy. The director watches the actor, encourages him, offers comments, stops him and asks for explanations, or more frequently explains his acts to him. The situations enacted may refer to the past, present, and future. Even the dreams are subjected to dramatization. The psychodrama performs two important functions for the patient: it provides a catharsis (emotion release) and develops spontaneity (the ability to adjust to a situation quickly and desirably).

A Treatment for the Group—Sociodrama

Sociodrama represents a transition from individual psychotherapy to group psychotherapy. The former, so to speak, is absorbed in the latter. In other words, in the group situation the individual can still receive help. In the sociodrama the number of individuals in the group is unlimited. These individuals who take most active parts are representative of types within a given culture; thus, they are not considered so much individuals as parts of a cultural group structure. It follows, therefore, that sociodrama deals with intergroup relations rather than with interpersonal relations. The group in sociodrama corresponds to the individual in psychodrama. Accordingly, the group has to work out its own problems on the stage just as the individual has to work out his problems. This necessitates the development of deep action methods. When two cultures coexist in physical proximity, and their members respectively are in a continuous process of interaction and exchange of values, there are bound

to be apparently unsurmountable problems. The sociodrama is ideally suited as a medium for solving these problems.

We may note here a classroom example in which the teacher sets up a situation and various pupils are asked to play characteristic roles in a staged situation. As he plays the parts each child tends to identify himself with his role and reacts as if in an actual situation.

In social studies, especially, sociodrama is useful in helping pupils comprehend the emotional aspects of the problems involved in social concepts. White (53), for example, used role-playing to make the study of the legislative process more interesting and meaningful to civics students. Group experience was provided (1) by giving the students experience with simple sociodrama, and (2) by limiting the experiment to the consideration of one problem, "How a Bill Becomes a Law." In addition to learning the basic principles of political strategy, the students were able to see how the personality of congressmen could affect legislation, and also they were brought to the realization of the importance of personal relationship in political activity.

Closely related to sociodrama is sociometry, which represents a system of measuring the interrelation of feeling patterns among people. Sociometry may be used with any group, whether it be in a schoolroom, in which a child may be asked to select from the group those whom he wants to sit beside, or in a home for delinquents, in which the girls may be asked which particular cottage-mother they would like to live with. Sociometry has definite implications for group and individual guidance in the classroom. The sociogram, for example, has already been discussed in another chapter.

STUDYING AND HELPING THE CHILD THROUGH PLAY TECHNIQUES

The Uses of Play in Child Guidance

Just as in the case of drawing and painting, untrained personnel must exercise care and reserve judgment in studying and treating the child through his play behavior. The application of play as a diagnostic and therapeutic measure for treatment of

serious cases of maladjustment must be reserved for the clinician, preferably a psychiatrist. Every classroom teacher, however, recognizes the significance of the "play spirit." Play is a natural and major factor of activity in the life of any child, and only by means of it, with the very young child especially, can the teacher accomplish some important objectives of education. Knowing something about the diagnostic and therapeutic values of play in relation to mental health, the teacher cannot avoid being influenced in her philosophy of the use of play as an educational medium. In the few pages here devoted to play as a projective technique, it is hoped that the teacher will gain a deeper appreciation of the close relationship of play behavior to the inner life of the child. Then she will not only have an appreciation of the work of the clinician in treating a serious problem case, but she may also gain greater insight into the children she teaches.

The first studies regarding the diagnostic and therapeutic possibilities of play were centered around attempts to apply psychoanalytic theories and should not be accepted as sound and final contributions to a real play concept. The psychiatrists who initiated these early experimental attempts were not aware of the developmental aspects of the play urge or of the scientific basis of expression through the art of play (25). Even the current developmental psychologists have been concerned with observable behavior patterns to the neglect of the human play urge and the emotional tone accompanying a particular play behaviorism. That the thwarted motives of children find an outlet in play activities cannot be denied. In play the child can usually do as he pleases, and the conditions imposed by reality can be changed readily.

The uses to which play may be put have been well summarized by Amster (3), who illustrates these functions: (1) to aid in diagnostic understanding, (2) to establish a working relationship, (3) to reestablish different ways of playing, (4) to help the patient verbalize certain materials, (5) to help the child act out unconscious material, and (6) to develop an interest in play useful in other settings. From the classroom teacher's point of view all of these possible uses are practical; their degree of usefulness, however, depends upon the insight and training of the teacher. Both

the objectives and outcome will be different from those of the psychiatrist.

Play materials range from the art materials discussed on pages 152-158 to dolls, puppets, clay, dough, and specially selected toy-houses, fences, cars, airplanes, and construction bricks. In the case of psychodrama, a specialized kind of play, no materials are necessary except the participants themselves.

Example from the Clinical Laboratory—The Play Interview

Early theories of psychoanalysis are gradually becoming out-moded, and attention is being directed more specifically to what the child really says and does. Through the medium of play we try to see the child's side of the story. We are interested in his complaints, dissatisfactions, and interests, and especially in what has caused his apparent unhappiness. Modern treatment requires a thorough survey of facts about home, neighborhood, and school. The results of physical and psychometric tests are essential. To acquire this information several techniques are used. Rarely are the results of one medium considered final. A study of the child's behavior in play is important, but the data gathered serve only to supplement those acquired from other sources.

One of the more recent and apparently successful play techniques is that of the play interview. An illustration of a practical variation of this technique is noted when the child is provided a number of opportunities to express his feelings and thoughts through the medium of dolls, as if they were responsible for all that was said and done. In this situation the child appears to be an impartial spectator, but actually he is expressing his own attitudes in supplying the dolls with what they say and do. The dolls are arranged upon a miniature stage and given the role of parents, teachers, brothers and sisters, or people in the neighborhood. We can acquire a better appreciation of the technique if we present here an actual dialogue between Ruth and her dolls.

The first case is that of Ruth, aged 10 years, 11 months (I.Q. 110), the youngest of four children, brought to the clinic by her mother, a slovenly woman, who was living with a man to whom she was not married. The home was described as being "neglected and filthy." The parents had quarreled frequently. The father was out of the home and

was working as a laborer. He had been in a state hospital at one time. Ruth had failed the fourth grade during the past year. In this setting this frail-looking, timid child had developed fears of the dark, fidgetiness, facial tics, nail biting, head jerking and frequent throat clearing. . . . Ruth was told to select any of the dolls and to play whatever game she wished. She chose a mother, father, little girl and boy dolls, and began to re-enact a domestic scene. After playing for a while, she put the baby girl to bed with a lullaby. During this phase of her play-interest, suggestive questions were of no clue in getting her to speak of her fears. Ruth had said:

They (the parents) go to bed. The children sleep at the bottom of the bed.

Q: Does anything happen during the night?

A: No.

Q: Do the children sleep all night?

A: Yes.

She continued her spontaneous play, awakening the parents, serving breakfast; then the father was sent off to work. The mother and the little girl were taken for a walk, and on the way the mother met a friend and walked off with her, leaving the little girl alone.

Q: How does she feel?

A: She don't feel so happy.

The little girl feels frightened. She is afraid of strangers. They might take her away. They might kidnap or kill her. She continued: The mother calls the brother, and they return home. She is always afraid. She sticks around her brother.

Q: Of what is she afraid?

A: That someone might pick her up and kidnap her. . . .

Q: What things did you begin to learn about?

A: Why the doll was scared to stay alone. She was afraid because somebody would kidnap her.

Q: Whom shall we play with?

A: The same dolls.

The patient selected a little girl and a boy. She set up a bedroom and a kitchen. She described how the children are in bed, the father has his breakfast, kisses his wife goodbye and goes to work. The children are awakened and have their breakfast.

Q: Now we soon are going to see what the little girl is scared of.

A: The mother finishes cleaning the home, then goes to town, coming home in time to prepare dinner. The children come in together.

Q: Why?

A: The brother is afraid that someone might kidnap her (if he leaves her alone). The brother runs off to school (after dinner). The little girl cries. She starts to school alone. A man jumps out of the alley and grabs her. He binds her. He learns that she wasn't in school. The family start searching and can't find her. They telephone the police. The mother sits around and cries. When the father goes out to look for her he passes a spooky house! He hears a little cry. "Why, that's Dorothy." He sees her all tied up and takes her out. He picks up a club, then ties up the hands of the kidnapper, whom he finds asleep, and brings them both home. When the kidnapper wakes up, the father socks him one with his fist. He says, "If the cops couldn't take you to the police station, I'd kill you." Then the cops come and take him away, and they live happily ever after. . . .

Now take the kidnapper—place the little girl in front of him. Let her look at him. (The patient does this.) She is looking at him.

Q: What does she see?

A: She sees her kidnapper.

Q: What does he look like?

A: Like her father.

Q: Why does he look like her father?

A: They look rough and cruel.

Q: And her father looks?

A: Rough and cruel, in his eyes like.

Q: And *your* father looks?

A: Rough and cruel.

Q: What did you learn today?

A: Today I learned this little girl was kidnapped. The man looked just like her father.

Q: What does that mean?

A: Maybe it could have been her father that kidnapped her or someone who looks like him. Maybe it's imagination, that she wants to be kidnapped.

Q: If she is kidnapped?

A: She'll be with her father.

Q: What good can that do for you?

A: It can make my nervousness stop. I want to be kidnapped. I want to be with my father.

Q: Do you really?

A: Yes. But I don't want to leave my mother to be with my father (13).

The play interview is not standardized and varies with the background and philosophy of the therapist or with the problems offered by the children. Information about the child is gathered from the parents, teachers, or social workers; then, without using premature assumptions and theories regarding the causes of the problem, the emphasis is placed upon the concrete difficulties which have arisen at a specific time in the child's life situation. Although the child is given every opportunity to play freely with the dolls, the play situations are planned and controlled and can be repeated as frequently as desirable. The clinician is guided by the assumption that there is no single road to the collection of facts which help to explain child behavior. No one theory can account for all the facts in any one case, and the interview serves to supplement other methods of treatment.

The interview proceeds in progressive stages (52). The first involves a type of preparation of the parent, the child, and his friends. In the case of clinical problems the preparatory stage can be greatly aided by the teacher. As a part of the procedure of establishing rapport the child is made aware of his problem. Then he is permitted to play freely with the toys provided and with the therapist as an unobtrusive visitor. With young children it is desirable to have the play situation in the child's home or schoolroom. A second stage is to introduce a few rules. This gives the therapist an opportunity to observe the child's attitude toward conforming, ignoring, or resisting. Some children ask for rules because they want to be sure they are doing things right. In the play situation the therapist becomes an active participant and takes the place of the teacher, mother, or companion, according to what the child makes her. At all times, however, the therapist offers as few suggestions and as little interference as possible. Just how much the therapist controls or directs the play depends upon the child. A fearful and timid child, for example, may be helped by seeing new materials he has not yet seen. Therapy begins when cues from the child's behavior give a signal for the therapist's influence in a soothing and encouraging fashion.

Diagnostic Understanding Through the Use of Play

In any play situation it is difficult to distinguish diagnostic features from the therapeutic features. The observer should look for likes and dislikes, assets and liabilities, the child's problems, and his attitude toward the world he lives in. The question of whether a particular behavior is significant is determined by the total play configuration plus the intensity of feelings expressed. Notable in the features of a play situation will be a picture of the child's complete fantasies with their plot structures. The examiner looks for possible mental or personality deviations and their significance for determining the nature and degree of the child's problems. To what extent is the child adjusting inadequately? By what means is he making partial adjustment? What are the relationships between the child's ego and himself? What are the conflicts between the child's manipulation of reality and himself? What does the child consider important and unimportant? What is his relationship to authority?

No attempt has been made here to be all-inclusive or systematic in the diagnostic procedure. This, in fact, characterizes the play technique itself. Every therapist uses his own system of observation as well as his own procedures of diagnosis and therapy.

The Play Situation as a System of Treatment

Several approaches are followed in using the play situation for treatment. One of the most popular approaches is the so-called "release therapy" similar to that discussed in previous paragraphs relating to artistic expression. Levy (31), who is the leading exponent of this theory, indicates that play therapy is aimed at the release of the child's feelings with no attempt on the part of the therapist to produce insight on the part of the subject and little attempt at interpretation. The final result is a blend of releases and an insight which modifies social attitudes, decreases the urge for aggression, and eliminates feelings of insecurity and inferiority.

The psychological approach is described as a planned play procedure in which the needs of the child determine the "sets" arranged by the therapist. The stage is set so the child can express

his feelings and thoughts as if the dolls rather than the child were responsible. The child is more or less restricted to a play situation, and the dolls are used to represent people he knows and associates with in real life. Occasionally the therapist himself is represented by one of the dolls, and the child can work out his relationship with him in a vicarious manner (13, 48).

In the therapeutic play situation it "is necessary to meet (the child) as a person: to face him with all his destructiveness, hyperactivity, and impulsiveness; to stand fast before his accumulated fury; and at the same time to live through his experiences with him, comforting and supporting him even when he resists the relationship" (35). The teacher must recognize the malbehavior but at the same time be aware of something of value which is temporarily obscure. When we stop an aggressive act we must not reject the child in the process.

Two other approaches are noteworthy: the nondirective approach, in which the responsibility and direction are left to the child (5); and the approach of psychoanalysis, with emphasis on the interpretation of the actual arrangement in space that the child makes with play materials (20, 30). •

Evaluation of the Play Technique in Use in the Schoolroom

An eclectic point of view of the therapeutic values of play has definite application to the teaching process. We may, for example, begin with the tension-release theory, which in essence permits the child to "play out" his feelings and problems. The optimum conditions required to enable a child to do this include a schoolroom atmosphere of calmness, filled with friendliness, and a feeling on the part of each child of complete permissiveness. A child must feel free to express his emotions completely. Progressive schools have been emphasizing this for years. However, they have failed to include in their philosophy one essential element: in such freedom the child must gain insight into his own problems. The teacher must recognize the emotions of the child and reflect these attitudes back to him in such a manner that he can gain insight into his behavior and thus eventually learn self-control and self-confidence in facing reality.

To the tension-therapy theory we may add relationship therapy, which in essence requires a proper rapport between teacher and pupil and between pupil and pupil. The child must learn to live with other people, but living happily requires an attitude of respect for the child by the teacher. She should accept each child as she finds him and encourage him to include her in his planning, or to feel free to exclude her when she is not needed. At times the teacher will find useful the psychobiological approach, wherein she necessarily sets the stage, supplies the materials, and even directs the thinking; but such control will be in a broad framework, leaving specific activity and expression entirely to the pupil. In play situations she must make available varied kinds of materials. Directions for what is done with these materials in creative drama, creative music, and creative art should be minimized. With these materials the child should find complete freedom in releasing his emotions. Only in an atmosphere of permissiveness can the pupil develop responsibility to make choices, to use self-initiative, to exercise self-control.

LEARNING ABOUT THE CHILD THROUGH HIS CREATIVE EXPRESSION IN THE ARTS

The Child's Expression of His Inner Self Through Drawing and Painting

The usually unconscious, intangible thinking and fantasy of a child, accompanied by various degrees of emotional tone, can often be observed as he plays with clay, paste, dough, cold cream, or finger-paints. These we can classify as "unstructured" materials. Also of value is his expression with the use of "semistructured" materials, such as crayons, brush paints, pens, and pencils. It is with these media that we shall be immediately concerned in the next several paragraphs. We shall then discuss expression in the use of such materials as blocks, mosaic pieces, and beads. In the next section we shall consider "well-structured" materials, such as dolls, toys, dollhouses, furniture, and other objects which a child uses in his play.

The study of the personality of the child through his drawing was first practically demonstrated by the use of Goodenough's

Draw-a-Man Test (22), which determines a child's mental age. Artistic expression has a developmental aspect in that children's drawings at various stages of maturation have definite characteristics. Three general developmental stages in children's drawings are discernible: first, the scribbling stage, characterized by random dots and dashes, lines, whirls, and circular-tending forms; second, subjective representation of what is seen rather than what is felt, as in drawings of the human face, the human form, or almost any simple object; and third, realistic representation characterized by a continuance of subjective, decoratively printed words, caricatures, human forms, and conventional designs.

Clinical psychologists have observed that as soon as a recognizable man can be produced, the child has a tendency to portray his own personality through drawing posture, gesture, and facial expression. Thus the child exhibits in his drawing the kind of man he admires or fears. Even more likely is he to draw his conception of himself with respect to size, build, or facial expression. What he draws may be interpreted in terms of confidence and self-reliance exhibited in the general activity of arms and hands. It is significant to note that the child draws a man several years older than himself, while an adult will normally draw a person younger than himself. Significant, too, are the factors of style, such as smoothness or jerkiness, symmetry or avoidance of symmetry, heavy point pressure, and congruity of movement.

The reader will recognize here a form of projective technique which enables us to understand the personality of the child. In seeking specific cues for interpretation, it is helpful to consider five general personality attributes: kinetics, style, values, creativeness, and mental content. The term kinetics describes speed, strength, motor perseveration, and general muscle tonus (physical activity). Style refers to a more complex interrelation of movements: the pattern of oscillation between work and relaxation, grace or awkwardness; in fact, all the time-space patterns which the movements describe. Values refer to the indications of pleasure shown with the use of specific materials such as water color, crayon, pencil, toys, etc. The richness, complexity, and originality of a product may be described as creativeness.

Projective techniques, including drawing and painting, are

usually primarily instruments for diagnosing personality patterns, but they are also becoming increasingly employed as therapeutic techniques. It is with the therapeutic or mental-hygiene value rather than the diagnostic that the typical teacher will probably find most help. We shall begin with this aspect by citing an example from a clinical laboratory; nevertheless, an intelligent and alert classroom teacher can immediately recognize features in the example which are both adaptable and pertinent to the teaching of art.

THE CASE OF HUGH

Hugh was a boy approximately ten and one half years old, very much inhibited and too self-conscious to let himself go into free genuine expression. On those occasions when he would draw at all he drew nothing but airplanes, saying that he did not "know how" to draw anything else. His pictures revealed an extreme meticulousness, a stereotypic performance, with a tendency to adhere to rigid rules. His movements (kinetics) appeared to be inhibited, tight, extremely cautious. Even his shoulders were pulled upward a little too high, and his arms were pressed tightly against his body as though he wanted to protect himself. His facial expression was usually sullen and stolid. The clinician's first attack was to limber up the child's muscles and joints, to loosen the tightness of his movements, to break up his ritualistic mannerisms.

One day, just as Hugh started at his usual airplane drawing, a sheet of paper was placed on the table. The clinician took a pencil herself, moved her arm over the paper, and, with her head turned entirely away from what she was doing, covered the paper with curves and lines. This was a "game" for Hugh to learn more about after he had done it himself. Hugh was eager to cooperate, and, after relaxing his arms by permitting them to hang heavily from his shoulders instead of being pressed tightly against his body, he began to make all kinds of curves and whirls in small and wide scribbles until he was told to stop. (The reader will recognize this as the first stage in the developmental drawing process.)

After considerable scribbling, Hugh was then asked to look at his product to see whether he could distinguish anything in it that might mean something.¹ He was to outline what he saw with crayons, each item a different color. The clinician at this point was careful to assure

¹ The reader will note here an application of the projective technique.

Hugh that there was no right or wrong in whatever he might find, and that even though what he saw seemed funny or strange or "pure nonsense," he should outline and describe it just the same. With his usual meticulousness, Hugh at first looked only at the details of his scribbling and found a tree, an airplane, a cloud, a wave of water, and bananas—hundreds of bananas, so many, in fact, that he refused to outline them all. He became absorbed in his picture, and he seemed to be drawing it again, but this time in a different way and with greater freedom. Suddenly he arose from his seat, held the picture at arm's length to see it as a whole, and with great surprise pointed at a "very ugly monster" consisting of nothing but a huge head, one leg, and a foot. What terrible features it had! Its eyes were out of place, and the mouth and nose were open, ready to "swallow you." Hugh then took another sheet of paper and drew one of those "awful faces"; he announced it was the Hunchback of Notre Dame, which he had seen in a motion picture and which had frightened him "for years." Definite therapeutic values then began to appear. Hugh, who had been quiet, withdrawn, and retiring in speech, now began to speak in a free and almost dramatic manner. His pictures now differed markedly from his first ones. The scribbling appeared to release emotions and fantasies that had been blocking an otherwise free expression. During the process of this new freedom he drew whatever came to his mind. Much of the content depicted scenes of early frightening childhood memories and sibling rivalry (17).

What practical implications can we gather from this case? In the first place, judgment of a child's drawing should not be based on standards that value the accuracy of representation. Rather it should be judged from the dynamics that lie behind the product and that express the inner feelings of the child. In the second place, the factors of meticulousness, rigid adherence to rules, and strenuous attempts at true representation are indicative of anxiety, repression, inhibition, emotional stubbornness, and general lack of emotional adjustability. The necessary factors for true artistic expression include a freedom bordering on carelessness or carefreeness, and an opportunity to be aggressive, especially against the conventional pattern. These factors present a necessary step in artistic development. A child who skips this stage usually has to be directed back to it and given the opportunity to begin anew. Pertinent points of observation for the

teacher should include such factors as the degree of tension or relaxation, quickness or slowness of movement, and manner of holding and using the pencil. Are the movements in circles, ellipses, lines, curves, squares, or triangles? Are the patterns large or small? Are the strokes fine or thick? Continued or disconnected? How much space is being used? Is the child hesitant or spontaneous in attack? (Hesitancy is indicative of inhibition and restriction.)

THE CASE OF MICKY

Micky was seven years old, a problem child because he was unable to sit quietly for even a short period, made a great fuss about removing and putting on outdoor clothing, arrived at school a "messy sight" every morning after his short bus trip, and clowning and talked aggressively during the day. Micky had one two-and-a-half-year-old brother. At first he did not want to paint at all, but after adult standards and pressure were removed he eventually took the brush, dipped it in the paint, and entirely covered a succession of sheets. He watched the colors melt into each other and exclaimed, "I'm magic!" How happy he seemed to be to get the paper so wet that the colors soaked through to the next sheet! For three weeks he smeared and smattered and daubed. Then one day he brought his paper up to the teacher and displayed a huge square on the sheet, "See, see, it's the trousers of a big, big man. He is so big that you can't see the rest of him." The next day he continued to smear, then said, "Yummy, yummy, look at it! Pink ice cream! Who wants pink ice cream?" His friends wanted none of it, so he sat down and painted some more. Next day he finished a picture, held it up, and exclaimed, "See, here is the whole big man! That is his beard. (It was a line from the top to the bottom of the sheet.) See how long it is? But wait, I'm going to cut his beard off. I'm going to cut his head off!" Hilariously shouting and dancing, he skipped around the room, apparently letting off aggression and covering his fear of retaliation. Micky's next specific picture displayed the "big man" once more, which he described as a giant stepping on an imp. "He does it so quick that the tiny imp can't even squeak."

Signs of effective therapy began to appear. Micky's pictures began to show more content. He began to show interest in learning to read. Painting gave release to anxiety, feelings of aggression, fears of punishment (9:136).

What are the educational implications of this case? The art

work of children can be interpreted as preventive, diagnostic, and therapeutic. It follows, therefore, that it has significant mental-hygiene value. Children's paintings can be used (by clinicians) to uncover acute and deep-seated problems often unexpressed in overt behavior until later. In the case of serious neurotic disturbance, early diagnosis and referral to the therapist may shorten the time of treatment.

Social conduct during the painting period tells us as much about the child as his product of work. Optimum conditions require complete freedom of choice of medium and subject to be drawn. Interpretations must be based on a sequence of each child's pictures and behavior; single anecdotes and pictures lead only to wild guessing. The group situation gives an opportunity to overcome the resistance of children who refuse to paint. These children can be asked to color wooden boxes or other articles. They are usually pleased to assist in handing out art materials and mixing the paint. Tactful and gradual exposure to art work may eventually lead the resistant pupil to dare an attempt.

Children's art work in the group has the special advantage of providing opportunities to observe social conduct. It is interesting to note how an unusual and disturbing factor introduced into a group of pupils at work with art can affect the art product of most of them. For example, a Negro boy joined a group of 20 white children. Nine of the group painted pictures where houses, woods, haystacks, and boats were threatened by lightning or were on fire. The Negro boy, who was frightened and homesick, expressed his wishful thinking in the symbol of a large house. (9).

The Unique Quality of Finger-Painting as a Projective Technique

Finger-painting provides for rapid and easy creation of colorful pictures without the necessity of mastering complicated skills and handling tools. Young children especially like it, just as they enjoy playing in the mud. After many attempts, Shaw (46), a leading pioneer in the art of finger-painting, finally created a paint that had the necessary color and texture qualities, was nonpoisonous internally and harmless to the skin, could be

washed off the clothes and skin, and still would produce permanent pictures.

The medium is simple to use. A smear of paint is merely applied to a wet paper with a spatula and then worked with the fingers, the hands, or the forearms. After the picture is finished, the paper is lifted onto sheets of newspaper for drying. Later it is pressed flat with a warm iron. Reports have been made of the effectiveness of this medium for even the more serious neurotic and psychotic abnormalities (40).

Significant recent studies of finger-painting are those of Napoli (38), who has attempted to diagnose human behavior in great detail through the use of this medium. Without statistical confirmation, he concludes that leaning on one hand during the initial phases of the painting process is indicative of self-consciousness; and that leaning against the table shows a lack of self-reliance. People assuming these postures are distressed and inevitably get paint on themselves. Shy, timid, withdrawn, and embarrassed children will shift from one foot to the other or will even wrap one foot around the other. Compensation is noted when they invariably scratch the paper, slap the paint, or use too much water or paint. Their pictures lack balance, and display violent content. Depressed people indicate a lack of motivation, are slow and undirected, reach toward the middle of the paper, and let the arm slump off and fall against the body. The severely depressed is shocked to realize he has paint on his clothes, and usually reacts by smelling his hands and sometimes getting paint on his face.

A finger-painting record form is available on which can be recorded the minutest details in an accurate and objective manner (39). On the record can be recorded such details as the position of the first daub of paint, the parts of the hand used, the working of the paint, the choices of colors, the motions, the rhythm, the texture, the composition, the skill span, the trend of behavior, and even the subject's verbalization as he works. The whole finger-painting technique is divided into three major aspects: (1) the performance observation, including the visible emotional, behavioral, and physical manifestations; (2) the painting analytics dealing with the finger-painting itself and

broken into eight subdivisions of handedness, color, motion, rhythm, texture, composition, order, and symbolism; and (3) the verbalization, including the story the individual attaches to or uses to explain his finger-painting product.

The Diagnosis and Interpretation of Children's Drawing and Painting

The analysis and interpretation of the significant elements in drawing and painting have attained no standardization. In fact, the variations in the procedure are almost as numerous as the clinicians who report. No attempt whatever is made to be definitive regarding the possible methods of diagnosis and interpretation. The writer's only purpose in including these examples is to give the reader an appreciation of the intricate, difficult, and often hazardous procedure of using children's drawings and paintings for diagnostic purposes. We shall take several examples from the psychiatrist's laboratory and follow these with examples of less intricate systems of interpretation.

The Nautical Theme in Children's Art: A Psychiatric Interpretation

In a group of children who are given freedom to choose their subject in pictorial art, some will choose the subject of "boats." According to Bender and Wolfson (8), this probably represents children with particular problems in the Oedipus situation due to serious disturbances in the parent-child relationship during the Oedipus period. The boats drawn will follow certain laws of progressive development depending upon the maturational level, personality structure, and specific emotional problems of the child. The boat represents the mother with the child inside of it. Differentiation in the background permits the appearance of the father on the scene, most characteristically the sun. In time of war, symbols in the background representing the father may take the form of insignia or flags. Thus the child's need for the father and stronger family unit is revealed.

Animal Drawings of Children: A Psychiatric Approach

Bender and Rappoport (7) described an analysis of a group of children's animal drawings collected over a number of years.

The pictures were divided into two large groups: pictures of nonaggressive animals and aggressive animals. The nonaggressive animals, such as horses, ducks, cats, and birds, possessed attributes of domesticity. Children who drew horses and birds frequently gave a history of truancy or vagrancy. Children who came from broken homes drew cats and dogs. Some of the pictures showed a duck, which seemed to represent a contented mother with her children. The mothers of children who drew these pictures were aggressive and rejecting.

The aggressive group of animals were represented by forest and jungle animals, often drawn with a benign appearance. The psychodynamics of the children who drew these animals showed depression and feelings of inferiority which were associated with a punitive or absent father. The identification of the child with the strong, benign animal seemed to be on the basis of an attempt to reconstruct in fantasy the kind of father he did not have in real life.

Children's Drawings: A Mental-Hygiene Interpretation

Elkisch (17) studied a sample of the art products of eight children in an attempt to find characteristics of maladjustment and adjustment. Maladjustment implied immaturity, regressive behavior, destructive tendencies (destructiveness of somebody or something, as well as self-destructiveness). Adjustment coincided with emotional maturity, constructive behavior, creative abilities. Maladjustment was represented in the drawings as rigidity, simplicity, expansion over compression, dominant integration, and healthy attitude toward reality.

England compared public school retarded and delinquent children's drawings. He found that delinquents produce more drawings and that their pictures appear to be more social. Retarded children differ very slightly from the other groups. Two of his individual cases from the delinquent group are presented as follows:

Pauline was an illegitimate girl with symptomatic behaviorisms of nail-biting, occasional ailing, and cruelty to animals. This behavior was first noticed after her foster parents had children of their own. Her drawings, seven in all, showed: (1) chased by a dog, (2) apple fell from tree and hit her on the head, (3) fell from a tree and hurt her arm,

(4) crying for help in a house, (5) sick in bed, (6) chair being pulled out from under her as she was sitting down, (7) a five-story building, filled with windows.

Pauline preferred to portray her life as being composed of not too enjoyable events. At that time they were considered by her as being the most important experiences she was willing to draw for others to see. . . .

Angeline was a young full-blooded Indian girl who frequently ran away and hitchhiked all over the country. Her father had been sent to prison for the murder of her mother. Angeline had witnessed the father shoot the mother. She frequently had nightmares and screamed and cried aloud about a shooting she saw. She developed hysterics and had to be put to bed when she heard an automobile back-fire. Her drawings showed: (1) pictures of Smoky Mountains where she spent part of her time when she ran away from the institution, (2) a murder in a Texas bar room, with Angeline looking through the window from the outside viewing one cowboy shooting another (when questioned, she admitted she was making the story up but failed to give information about her own mother's death), (3) a girl tight-rope walking, (4) a girl being killed by an automobile.

The psychic trauma suffered when Angeline witnessed her mother being shot apparently is still playing an important role in her life. The supposed murder in the Texas bar room was only a projection of her feeling of the real murder she witnessed (18:528).

Alschuler and Hattwick (2) examined easel paintings of pre-school children to discover (1) if and how their free activities with easel, paint, crayon, blocks, and dramatic play may be related to and give insight into child personality; and (2) what generalized tendencies, if any, might be found expressed in these activities. They concluded that in these activities children generally behave as they feel. Many exceptions appear, however. They also concluded that children of differing social backgrounds have comparable forms of expression. While paintings themselves may not safely be used to predict behavior, they may provide possible clues to understanding the child's emotional flow and supply some of the missing clues needed to build a workable organismic personality picture.

Brick (9) has given specific illustrations of how art work has served as a medium for releasing tension and the varying charac-

teristics of the art product, according to the specific mental problem. *Aggression*, for example, is illustrated in the case of Charles, a little 7-year-old boy who had lost his father in an airplane crash occurring when the plane was landing while he and his mother were waiting at the airfield. Since his father's death he had assumed the role of the head of the family. Now his role was being threatened through the new marriage of his mother. He began to make pictures of many disastrous air battles. He made a picture of a large boat, the deck covered with red, bleeding soldiers. Once again this new theme lasted several days. Then one day, when one of his friends looked at his picture and said, "Where are those poor soldiers traveling to, I see no shore, no Red Cross flag?" Charles quickly painted a green island in an empty space in the picture, made a flagpole with the Red Cross flag, and covered the bleeding soldiers with thick white paint. "Now nobody will know that this was all bloody! They are all Red Cross men now. See the big parcels on deck? They are full of good supplies: the boat brings them to the Red Cross island."

According to Brick, children suffering from feelings of *repression* as a result of deprivation and rejection in the home paint in water colors only and with hectic, thin brush strokes. Some paint only with the smallest brushes, as if to make their real feelings less noticeable. They never use the whole paper, as if in a limited space their work could more easily slip out of sight. *Resistance* to expression in art is indicated in preference for another type of activity, such as composition writing. In one case a young boy painted nothing but black boats for several days. Black was the only color he used; in this case it was the symbol for an emotional block. Automatic repetition of any pattern picture has been found to be an indication of either mental retardation or of an emotional block. *Wishful thinking* is easily observed in children's drawings. In one boarding school, for instance, the girls would repeatedly make pictures of stage scenes, and the boys would paint pictures of bull fights or baseball contests; thus their need of attention and wish for power were revealed. They identified themselves with efficient and beautiful heroes and heroines watched and admired by crowds of people.

Expression in the arts is therapeutic in that it provides emotional release, pleasant motor activity, and deep satisfaction of recreation. From a mental-hygiene point of view it strengthens the ego, releases unconscious fears and anxieties, and resolves unduly strong inhibitions.

Neither parent nor teacher has a right to disown or discount a person's creative growth. Neither should a child be discouraged from drawing and painting as he feels the need. Too often outline drawings to be colored or number kits to be "painted in" are placed before children. "Too many parents, and even teachers, hold the belief that visual knowledge is the sole basis for the judgment of an art product, stubbornly clinging to the idea that the exact duplication of nature is the only yardstick by which to measure the child's accomplishments" (28:22).

SUMMARY

The projective method of studying children involves the creation of a situation in which the child will reveal his private world of meanings, his values, and his feelings. The process of projection is unconscious, and in attributing to others unconscious feelings, ideas, and attitudes, there may be released a certain tension which gives temporary relief. The projective techniques discussed in this chapter are (1) oral and written expression, (2) sociodrama and psychodrama, (3) play, and (4) creative expression in the arts.

The most widely known of the projective techniques are the Rorschach Ink-Blot Test and the Thematic Apperception Test. A child is asked to respond to an ink blot (Rorschach) and a picture (TAT), and his responses are compared to the responses of other people who have been categorized into personality patterns. Sentence completion is an old technique and was originally used as a mental and reasoning instrument rather than as a measure of personality. Although projective in nature, the story method somewhat controls or directs the response; accordingly, spontaneous self-expression may be restricted. The method might be used to measure comprehension of pertinent social implications as well as to judge the pupil's approach to problematic situations.

Psychodrama, originated by Moreno, is a type of projective technique in which the pupil is required to assume the role of himself or someone else in a particular type of situation either suggested by the director or by the actor himself. Although the situation is an imaginary one, much can be learned about the pupil's inner personality, his strivings and conflicts, and his manner of behaving with members of his family and other people affecting his life. Closely allied to the psychodrama is the sociodrama, which represents a transition from individual to group psychotherapy. In the sociodrama the number of individuals is unlimited. Those individuals who take the most active parts are representative of types within a given culture and are, therefore, regarded as parts of a cultural group structure. Sociodrama deals with intergroup relations rather than with interpersonal relations noted in psychodrama.

Play has been used as a medium to (1) provide diagnostic understanding, (2) establish a working relationship, (3) reestablish different ways of playing, (4) help the patient verbalize certain materials, (5) help the child act out unconscious material, and (6) develop an interest in play useful in other settings.

Creative expression with such unstructured materials as clay, paste, dough, cold cream, or finger-paints has been the subject of concentrated study by clinical psychologists. They have concluded that creative expression not only offers diagnostic possibilities, but may also be considered therapeutic because it provides emotional release, pleasant motor activity, and deep satisfaction of recreation.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. What are the implications of projective techniques to guidance in elementary education?
2. Who can make the most use of the sentence-completion technique of studying personality, the teacher or the clinical psychologist? Why?
3. What is the Rorschach Ink-Blot Test? Is it of value to the counselor or classroom teacher? Explain.
4. What is the meaning of TAT? Is this test of practical value to the classroom teacher? Explain.

CHAPTER 5

Use of Tests in Studying the Child

Twenty years ago we had more faith in the formalized test than we have today. Unfortunately, there are some contemporary classroom teachers who assume that a testing program is a panacea for all educational problems. On the other hand, many teachers would agree that "It can be predicted that at least two-thirds of school work does not lend itself to testing by the use of standardized tests. Since standardized tests to date, notwithstanding efforts to the contrary, emphasize drill material and the drill viewpoint, such tests are unacceptable in many phases of the school program. Any tests dealing with problem situations or children's appreciations must be informal and teacher-made. For much of this work no tests are needed" (33:457).

What can tests accomplish? In the first place, they can be of service in helping the teacher to answer the question, "Am I teaching my pupils those things I had planned to teach them?" This implies an emphasis on the word "plan." A teacher who uses a test intelligently has formulated a comprehensive range of curricular objectives which will include not only acquisition

of academic information and skills but also interests, attitudes, appreciations, physical health, and personal-social adaptability. Furthermore, each of these educational areas must be defined in terms of pupil behavior situations which indicate growth toward the objective. Tests can contribute a proportion of the evidence showing development in attainment of the objectives.

In the second place, can tests be used to help justify a modern curriculum? Unfortunately, tests are being used even more extensively to justify the maintenance or reestablishment of the traditional curriculum. The disagreement has been due largely to a failure to select tests in terms of chosen objectives. Tests designed to measure objectives of an outdated curriculum should not be used to measure the objectives of a modern curriculum. This would be comparable to using the standards designed to purchase a horse and buggy for purchasing a new automobile. The wrong choice or erroneous interpretation of a test can defeat legitimate aims. Years ago, teaching consisted principally of developing skill learnings on the three R's and in the content subjects. Fundamental skills must retain an important place in our modern curriculum, but their position should be one of equality with (not superiority to) such objectives as learning how to think and reason, learning how to reach one's own conclusions instead of accepting those of others without question, learning from actual experience instead of being merely a spectator, gaining fundamental understanding of the principles underlying a subject rather than isolated facts about it, learning how to co-operate with other people, and learning how to live a balanced life. The modern curriculum is interested in the acquisition of concepts, attitudes, interests, and appreciations as well as personal-social adjustment.

Unfortunately, we have no standardized tests which by themselves adequately measure any contemporary objectives other than the acquisition of facts and skills. Even those tests which have been used to measure facts and skills emphasize the features of recognition and recall, both of which are elements of memory. Such phases of education as growth in human relationships and development of independence and initiative are not measurable by standardized tests. Fortunately, there are some standardized

tests, which can be of aid in evaluation if properly administered and interpreted. They must be supplemented by more informal techniques of appraisal; appraisal of children's growth beyond simply measuring subject-matter achievement and progress in skill learnings must rely on something more than standardized tests. We have no positive proof that today's curricula are less beneficial than those of yesterday, because we have few standardized tests based on today's curricula. Most of the available tests were standardized according to the traditional curriculum. It is quite possible that our children in the elementary school today know more about health and safety needs, aviation and transportation, atomic energy and its universal implications, food values, commerce, agriculture, education, and medicine than did their predecessors. They have an alertness and interest in the world about them, a sincere readiness to help those less fortunate than themselves, and a keen awareness of scientific progress in the world. Even if we had tests to determine such current interests and information, the results could not be compared with achievements of the past generations because such tests were not available then, either.

A third purpose of tests is to enable the teacher to attend more carefully to individual differences. By correct interpretation and use, the results of a test are helpful for the diagnosis and guidance of the individual child. Pretests, for example, may reveal phases of education to which pupils need to give attention. Pupil and teacher may plan together the next steps in the learning process. This will not necessarily mean drill and repetition on subject-matter items not known; rather, it may mean planning for a mental background in which the subject-matter items will be found and understood. The planning will require a knowledge of such factors as home background, special interests, pet aversions, appreciations, feelings of adequacy, and so on, which cannot be accurately determined by formalized tests. All of these factors must be known before a teacher can justifiably evaluate the quality and amount of a child's growth. General batteries of tests given at the close of the year have little value for teacher or pupil. Emphasis on the results of such a teaching procedure will tend to transform problem-solving and apprecia-

tion into drill and repetition of specific items of knowledge and information.

SERIOUS LIMITATIONS OF THE USES OF STANDARDIZED TESTS

In the preceding paragraph, reference was made to certain weaknesses of standardized tests. As the result of unwarranted confidence in their use and negative results often arising from their administration and interpretation, standardized tests need to be reconsidered with emphasis on the significance of their specific disadvantages. Generally speaking, classroom teachers have depended too much on proposed tests, and not enough on their own actual observations and experiences, for valuable information about a child. Noted below is a representative list of the criticisms often directed against standardized procedures.

1. Tests can present a false picture of the child. "How can I teach a child who has attained such a low score on this test? Here he is in my fifth grade and he achieves results equal to the third-grade average? What is he doing in my class?" In this case, the teacher has drawn a conclusion on the results of one test. Even if her conclusion is correct, she is guilty of illogical philosophy about individual differences. She believes that education is concerned principally in teaching groups rather than individuals. She has ignored the child's emotions, his basic needs, his interests and attitudes, and the social structure of her class. Tests, to a certain extent, can guide and help us understand the type of teaching needed, but at the same time they can present a rather distorted impression of the child.

2. Tests are misleading in their ease of administration and interpretation. Classroom teachers have often given standardized tests after a study of printed directions. They forget that results of standardized tests have merit only when a test is given by an experienced examiner under standard conditions. Tests have value in determining a child's ability in any subject only if they are *given, scored, and interpreted* by an *experienced teacher*. The typical classroom teacher ordinarily has had neither time nor inclination to engage in the study necessary to become a

psychometrist. If she had thus prepared herself, she probably would not be a teacher at all but rather a specialist in testing. The statistical knowledge required for correct interpretation of tests and an appreciation of their construction provides a challenge few teachers are willing to accept. We must emphasize at this point, however, that the average teacher who is willing to study and accept the aid of specialized personnel will find the standardized test a valuable aid to her teaching. Teachers must know the assumptions upon which standardized tests are constructed; they must understand the process of standardization as it involves norms, reliability, and validity.

3. Most of the older standardized tests are of limited educational significance. When the contents of these tests are examined item for item, it is found that, except by remote indirect procedure, they do not measure the most vital aims of education. As previously observed, they emphasize the acquisition of facts rather than the development of concepts and attitudes, critical thinking, creativity, originality, problem-solving, tolerance, and ability to get along well with people. Some of the more recent standardized tests attempt to examine ability to discriminate arguments and evaluate assumptions, but even these have certain limitations.

4. Standardized testing can repress pupil and teacher initiative. When a teacher's ability is evaluated by standardized test results, or when one group of pupils is compared to another group on test results alone, teaching emphasis will invariably turn to drill on the items and subject matter on which the tests are based. Wilson thinks that "to date, in general, the whole influence of standardized tests is to emphasize drill . . . in at least two-thirds of school work this is the wrong method. Appreciation experience should frequently grow without any testing, except the informal testing of class discussions. Ability in problem solving cannot be tested legitimately by drill-type tests. Unless the requirements of right teaching methods are observed, the test should be discarded" (33:456). The very nature of an objective test excludes some of the best material in literature, history, sociology, and other subjects because such material is speculative and hypothetical. Because there must be no doubt about many

of the answers, everything that is controversial in nature must be omitted. This tends to prevent the thoughtful pupil from speculating and expressing original points of view. Study habits of pupils and methods of teaching are controlled and directed toward relentless drill and memorization.

5. The use of "norms" in standardized tests has prevented the recognition of individual differences; the "average" becomes a hypothetical, "nonexistent" pupil. Swenson expresses an opinion representative of teachers who have recognized this limitation of standardized tests:

If we assume (too optimistically, perhaps) that a set of tests has been carefully chosen, properly administered, and correctly scored, it is perhaps safe to say that, in the typical school situation in which standard tests are used, the next steps are about as follows: the mean or median of each group's performance is computed; this measure of central tendency is compared with the published norms for the test; a judgment is made with respect to the adequacy of the children's performance (good, bad, or indifferent); and the tests are destroyed or stored away until some future day of house-cleaning in the school storeroom. If the average performance of the children is at or above the norm, there is usually little follow-up, except for a glow of satisfaction, both the intensity and duration of which tend to be directly related to the distance above the established norm. If, on the other hand, the average of the group is markedly below the test norm, pressure is often applied—on the teachers by the administrator, or on the children by the teachers—to bring the group average to the standard. This pressure is too often a depressing force from above, not, in any sense, a lifting force. . . . Interpreting test results for a group of children in terms of the group average only is just such a violation of what we know, or assert that we know, about children. An example will serve to indicate the importance of considering test results in their entirety instead of throwing away all other results after a mean or median has been determined. . . . The reading tests [of Prairie City School] showed the average performance of each school grade to be at or near the grade norms for the test used. All the grade means together showed a pattern of grade-to-grade progress, in the limited sense in which a cross-sectional study of a school system can show progress.

Helpful as it may be to know the average performance of a school group, that knowledge, even in relation to test norms, does not answer the basic questions: Do these children read as well as they should? Is

their performance on the reading test good enough? The average score does not tell what each child in the group can do, for each child is certain to vary, in some respects, from the class average. . . .

What of the complete range of scores in the same seventh grade? They covered a scaled score distance beyond the available norms at both ends of the scale! The individual variation was so great that, if we were to pool all the scores which fell within the limit of one standard deviation above or below the mean of each other grade (grades 4-12), there would be seventh-grade scores lower than all . . . pooled scores and other seventh-grade scores above all . . . pooled scores, except a very few in grades eleven and twelve (23:115).

When we compare the raw score of a pupil with equated data as a measure of the pupil's progress or failure, we are comparing levels of individual achievement with a level of general achievement. This procedure assumes that if the pupil does not progress at the "other fellow's pace" he is a failure. If he is living up to his potential, should we not say that he is a success regardless of how his achievement compares to that of the group?

TYPES OF TESTS AVAILABLE FOR A TESTING PROGRAM

In a textbook of guidance we have space only to consider the general characteristics of the most common types of tests. Because most of the standardized tests should be administered and scored by a psychometrist, our emphasis in this section will be directed toward interpretation and use of test results. But first, it will be appropriate to make a general outline of the types of tests available. Of the several approaches which could be used in classifying tests, we shall begin with two broad classifications, the teacher-constructed test and the standardized test. In the teacher-constructed test, items are selected and arranged by the teacher for local and classroom use. Standardized tests are constructed according to rather rigid experimental processes, definite directions are included, and appropriate time limits are usually imposed. Scoring keys are prepared, and rules are formulated for marking papers and determining scores on each part and on the whole test. The interpretation of test results depends upon standardized tables of norms.

According to their uses, tests may be classified as: (1) tests for obtaining information on the physical aspects of pupils, (2) tests of general ability, (3) aptitude tests, (4) tests of achievement, (5) diagnostic tests, (6) teacher-constructed tests, and (7) personality tests for attitudes, adjustment, and interests. Each of these will be discussed in the order listed.

COLLECTING DATA THROUGH THE USE OF SPECIFIC TYPES OF TESTS

Collecting Data on the Physical Aspects of Children (20)

The role of the teacher in providing data about the physical aspects of the child should be considered as supplementary to the health agencies of the school. It would be dangerous for the typical teacher to attempt to make a detailed diagnosis of physical defects and disease. Because it is impossible for every pupil to be examined by a nurse or a physician every day, it is necessary for the teacher to serve as a substitute to detect signs and symptoms of physical disorders which must be attended to by the physician. The physical aspects with which the teacher can be concerned are growth, height, weight, eyes, ears, and teeth.

The phrase "health appraisal" rather than "health test" is more appropriate for a guidance program. Health appraisal refers to the coöperative process of determining the total health status of the child, in which parent, teacher, physician, nurse, dentist, psychologist, and others may play an important role.

The purposes of health appraisal may be listed as follows:

1. To provide enlightening data on health status of children.
2. To provide information on handicaps or deviations from the normal.
3. To provide the basis for individual compensation for irremedial handicaps or deviations.
4. To provide the basis of classification in the modern program of physical education.
5. To serve as an educational experience (18:198).

Inasmuch as no single test or examination can determine the health status of a child, a variety of procedures may be considered: (1) health histories, (2) teacher's observations, (3) screening tests, (4) medical examinations, (5) dental examinations, (6)

special surveys, and (7) psychological tests. Space does not permit us to give adequate attention to methods of gaining health knowledge about each child. The writer believes, however, that this phase of appraisal is of such significance that it cannot be omitted entirely in a book discussing elementary school guidance. We shall include here the physical aspects with which the teacher can be concerned.

Height and Weight

FACTS PERTINENT TO GUIDANCE. Height-weight-age tables can easily be misinterpreted because few of them take into account differences in race, nationality, and constitutional body types. The principal value of height and weight tables lies in revealing whether a pupil has gained from year to year. The most valid guide for evaluating growth must always remain the personal experience, training, and insight of the teacher. Action and appearance of a child are indexes of health. Is the child vigorous or lethargic, alert or dull? Are his eyes clear? What is the glow or pallor of his skin?

FACTORS WARRANTING ATTENTION OF SPECIALISTS. Defective height (failure to gain in height over a six-month period); defective weight (failure to gain approximately 5 or 6 percent in one year, failure to gain weight over a period of two months); defective action and appearance (lethargic manner, dullness, skin pallor, dull eyes) are all matters requiring professional attention.

TYPES OF TESTS. To measure height, have the pupil stand against a wall or rod at full height with hips and head touching the wall or rod. Use an accurate right angle, i.e., box, picture frame, or large thin book with the long flat side against the measuring tape. Weigh pupils once a month under the same conditions; that is, same scales, same clothing, same day of week, and same hour of day. Typical tables: Baldwin-Wood Weight-Height-Age Tables. ACH Index of Nutritional Status, Nutritional Status Indices, Pryor Width-Weight Tables.

Posture

FACTS PERTINENT TO GUIDANCE. Posture is an index to the state of a child's general health. Poor posture is a frequent character-

istic of 8-, 9-, and 10-year-old children. Its presence may indicate a condition of malnutrition, chronic infection, fatigue, orthopedic difficulties, emotional maladjustment, and so on. Children of 11, 12, and 13 years of age are often slovenly and awkward.

FACTORS WARRANTING ATTENTION OF SPECIALISTS. Chronic fatigue, orthopedic difficulties, chronic infection, and emotional maladjustment should be referred to specialists.

TYPES OF TESTS. The posture of the pupil should be compared with standard pictures or charts of good posture. It is best to observe the child in his natural posture rather than in an assumed posture during examination (16).

The Skin and Hair

FACTS PERTINENT TO GUIDANCE. Skin diseases such as ringworm, impetigo, and scabies are the most frequent causes of absence of pupils from the elementary school. In addition to causing academic retardation, they affect the general appearance of the child and, in turn, the attitude of other pupils toward him. Because of the possible effect on social adjustment, the implications for guidance are obvious.

FACTORS WARRANTING ATTENTION OF SPECIALISTS. When specialists are available a teacher should not endeavor to offer diagnosis or therapy other than to inspect the first symptoms. Referral should be made immediately. This is especially necessary with symptoms arousing suspicion of contagious disease. When no specialists are available the classroom teacher should isolate the pupil as much as possible until he can go home or be taken there. In the case of ringworm, impetigo, scabies, and lice, with a little practice and study, she can be a great aid in suggesting treatment. It should always be the responsibility of the teacher to encourage general cleanliness and good grooming.

TYPES OF TESTS. Observation rather than testing is the best means of discovering facts about the skin and hair. Ringworm can usually be recognized by a slightly raised reddish scaly spot which clears in the center, but which expands at the edges with new irritations in the form of an oval or ring. The disease may appear on any part of the body, face, neck, arms, scalp, or be-

tween the toes. If it appears on the head or feet, treatment is difficult.

Impetigo appears most frequently on the face or hands or behind the ears in the form of a crust the size of a dime. The disease is highly contagious. When red points and lines appear on the skin, the disturbance may be due to the presence of itch mite, commonly known as scabies. If not treated immediately, secondary infection may occur. Treatment is difficult because the whole family must be treated and the clothes sterilized by heat. Acne frequently accompanies the onset of puberty; therefore its presence among girls in the upper elementary grades is not uncommon. New lesions develop from the discharge of pimples, and because of the resulting unsightliness the victim may soon develop symptoms of emotional maladjustment. Soap and water are among the best of remedies and preventatives for this malady. Specialists will also advise the limitation of sweets, cocoa, and chocolate in the diet.

Another malady frequently found among children is eczema, which appears as patches of skin roughness that crack and scale. It is often due to some type of allergy to food or to the presence of a substance within the clothes which contact the skin.

Almost all of the common communicable childhood diseases can be detected or diagnosed from the appearance of the skin. Such diseases as measles, scarlet fever, chickenpox, and smallpox are accompanied by a rash or red spots. During routine health inspection the teacher should watch for the presence of lice and nits (the eggs of the lice) in the hair. The nits are easily seen as oval gray bodies attached to the hair, especially behind the ears and on the back of the head. Prolonged itching and scratching accompany the infestation. Treatment consists of medication, softening with vinegar, and combing.

Sensory Defects

FACTS PERTINENT TO GUIDANCE. Sensory handicaps are the most obvious of the difficulties which affect school work. Teachers should be alert to symptoms requiring referral to the specialist. In the case of eye care, teachers should observe schoolroom lighting rules such as permitting the light to come over the left

shoulder (except for left-handed children) and preventing the light from shining directly into a child's eyes or on the desk or books. It is the teacher's responsibility to adjust the shades and arrange the seating, use artificial light when needed, and avoid too much reading activity on dark days. She can also arrange her work for short recesses and instruct her pupils to stop reading occasionally to rest the eyes. Special sight-saving classes are common in the larger school systems. When glasses have been purchased at the doctor's suggestion, the teacher has the responsibility to see that they are worn. The classroom teacher is often the first to recognize possible visual and hearing difficulties and refer them to a specialist.

Failure in school work, emotional maladjustment, or illness can often be traced directly to sensory defects. Apparent stupidity, belligerence, apathy, and inattention are frequently due to defective hearing.

FACTORS WARRANTING ATTENTION OF SPECIALISTS. Far-sightedness is difficult to detect and often missed in routine testing of the eyes with the ordinary visual-testing chart. Most eyes can pass the test by forcing the lens of the eye into sufficient accommodation so that near objects can be seen clearly. When the classroom teacher observes a pupil holding things at a distance, making efforts to rest the eyes, or complaining of headache, she should refer him to a specialist. Near-sightedness is easier to detect, but a specialist is needed to prescribe the necessary correction. Another common difficulty, astigmatism, which occurs when the eyeball is too long or too short and its surface irregular, also should be referred to a specialist.

The school physician or school nurse should make periodic examinations to find cases of deafness or other conditions affecting hearing. Referral should be made to a specialist when the classroom teacher observes inattentiveness, a flat voice, a discharging ear, or apparent effort to hear what is being said. The markedly deaf child is physically handicapped and will also need the attention of specialists in teaching.

TYPES OF TESTS. *The Snellen Chart.* This letter chart can be used by the classroom teacher if she studies the directions carefully and supplements the results with observations of pupils'

visual behavior in the classroom. The chart is available from the American Medical Association, 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago, Illinois, and from the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, 50 West 50th Street, New York City.

The Eames Eye Test. This test consists of seven parts, each one aimed at the detection of eye defects which need the attention of a specialist. The seven parts are as follows: (1) the visual-acuity test (conventional Snellen-type test); (2) the lens test (similar to the visual-acuity test except that the pupil attempts to read the letters while looking through a lens designed to detect far-sightedness); (3) the astigmatic-chart test (the conventional radiating-line test for astigmatism); (4) the coordination test (requires the pupil to look through a hand stereoscope at a chart depicting a chicken and a box); (5) the fusion test (uses a card on which a moon and stars appear to detect defects of binocular vision); and (6 and 7) two tests for fusion of type and eye dominance and other aspects of pupil vision. An interested teacher who is willing to study the directions thoroughly would be able to use this test. It may be obtained from the World Book Company, Yonkers, New York. •

The Betts Telebinocular Test. This test is made through an instrument designed to test the ability to fuse images created in the two eyes and to perceive depth. As the pupil looks through binoculars, he reports what he sees on slides which have been placed at various positions on a slide holder. An experienced examiner can determine such properties of the eyes as visual acuity, muscular balance, ability to fuse images, astigmatism, and others. Information concerning the Betts Telebinocular may be obtained from the Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pennsylvania.

Holmgren Test for Color Blindness. This test consists of a standard collection of yarns which the child is required to group according to color. With the Ishihara Test, also a test for color blindness, the subject is required to read numbers formed by variously colored dots on a background of colored dots. A classroom teacher can learn to give this and the Holmgren Test without special instruction.

The Audiometer Hearing Test. The 4A audiometer consists

of a phonograph and telephone apparatus whose headset is placed over the ear. One ear is tested at a time, and as many as 40 children can be tested at once. The pupil is required to write on a special form the numbers dictated to him by the phonograph through the earphone. The completed forms are compared with a key. The 5A audiometer is for individual testing. The pupil listens through an earphone and pushes a button that lights a light when he no longer hears a buzz or hum (the intensity of which is regulated by the examiner). The amount of hearing loss is read directly from the dial on the instrument. Both of these tests should be given only by a specialist. Information concerning audiometer equipment can be obtained from the High Volta Bureau, Washington, D.C., or from the American Society for the Hard of Hearing, Washington, D.C.

Whispered-Speech Test. The examiner standardizes the intensity of his whisper, which should barely be heard at 20 feet by several people whose hearing is normal. The pupil is examined with his eyes closed, his back to the examiner, and with one ear closed by the palm of the hand. He repeats certain words or numbers which are being whispered by the examiner. If the pupil can hear the standardized whisper, he has 20/20 hearing; if he can hear only at 15 feet, he has 15/20 hearing; if at 10 feet he has 10/20 hearing; and so on. The classroom teacher can learn to give this test with confidence.

The Watch-Tick Test. A medium-sized stop watch is used to examine the child. The examiner stands behind the child and cuts off his side vision with a card held at the side of the head. Then, as the watch is brought close to the child's ear, the distance is measured at which he first hears the tick. The score is expressed as hearing distance over standard distance. All children who have less than one-half normal acuity should be referred to a specialist.

Supplemental Observation. All hearing tests should be supplemented by the teacher's informal observation of negative factors. A summary of these is presented as follows: (1) Speech: the pupil substitutes sounds such as *t* for *k*, *s* for *z*, *k* for *sk*, *ts* for *s*, *ion* for *shion*, long *e* for short *i*, long *e* for short *e*. He omits sounds, chiefly finals; is careless and inaccurate in pro-

duction of all sounds. (2) Voice: the voice is abnormally high-pitched; very soft; dull; of metallic, harsh, or rasping quality. (3) Physical symptoms: turning one ear toward the speaker, ear-ache, discharging ears, frowning or straining forward to hear voices, watching the lips of speakers rather than their eyes (a child with hearing defect will watch the teacher's face during a class explanation rather than the words or example being written on the blackboard), buzzing sensation in the head, mouth breathing, extreme fatigue early in the day, inattention, listlessness, failure to respond to questions, frequent requests for instructions to be repeated.

The Nose, Mouth, and Throat

FACTS PERTINENT TO GUIDANCE. Defective breathing is a menace to health and to normal hearing. Defects of the mouth, nose, and throat are the most frequent of all negative health factors. In the case of enlarged adenoids, passage from the back of the mouth into the nose is cut off, forcing the individual's breath through his mouth. Infection may spread from the nose into the sinuses or the Eustachian tubes. Adenoids may cause such deforming facial appearance as thin nose, short upper lip, dropped chin, irregular teeth, and protruding upper teeth; these deformities usually have emotional repercussions. Infected tonsils are frequently the cause of irritability, restlessness, and fatigue. Imperfect teeth may also seriously affect appearance as well as jeopardize health. Although bad breath has serious social implications, even more serious is the fact that it is symptomatic of some oral, nasal, or alimentary defect.

FACTORS WARRANTING ATTENTION OF SPECIALISTS. Habitual mouth breathing due to obstructed breathing passages should always receive medical attention. Any defects of the teeth and mouth should be referred to a dentist. The attention of a physician should also be called to gross enlargement, abscess, or acute infection of the tonsils. The presence of a fiery-red throat with or without yellow spots on the tonsils, or the appearance of a small or large grayish patch on the tonsil or soft palate, is sufficient cause to isolate a pupil and refer him immediately to a nurse or physician.

TYPES OF TESTS. Daily routine inspection for nasal discharges, red, inflamed, or discharging eyes, fever, hacking little coughs, sore throat, and huskiness of voice is mandatory. When examining teeth, have pupil close his jaws and draw lips apart so that the efficiency of the bite may be determined. Next examine the teeth with the mouth wide open and the head thrown back. Watch for inflamed gums, decayed teeth, and general uncleanness. Note irregularities of jaws or teeth. Inspect the throat while pupil faces a good light. Dispose of all tongue depressors immediately after use. (It is best to examine without the use of a tongue depressor.) Teachers should not attempt to determine abnormalities of tonsils except in extreme cases of enlargement, abscess, or evident infection.

Neck, Chest, Back, Legs, and Feet

FACTS PERTINENT TO GUIDANCE. Enlarged lymph glands, the most frequent disease in the neck region, may indicate infection in the nose, mouth, or throat, or possibly decaying teeth or tuberculosis. Goiter is frequently discovered in children who live in geographic regions deficient in iodine in the drinking water or food. Skeletal abnormalities of the chest, back, legs, and feet are frequently the cause of personality disturbance.

FACTORS WARRANTING ATTENTION OF SPECIALISTS. The pupil with enlarged lymph glands should receive thorough, immediate medical care. The seriousness of a goiter can be determined only by a physician. A physician should also inspect any abnormalities of chest or sudden change in the control of legs and feet.

TYPICAL TESTS. Enlarged lymph glands can be detected by feeling for lumps occurring in a slanting line from behind the angle of the jaw toward the junction of the breast- and collar-bones. Goiter is an abnormal enlargement of the thyroid gland, which lies on either side of the windpipe at the base of the neck. When examining a pupil for chest defects, look for "projecting breastbone" (pigeon breast), flaring lower ribs, obstructed breathing, unequal expansion of chest on either side during breathing, abnormal speed in breathing, and presence of a chronic cough. Fast breathing on slight exertion and a purplish color of the lips

may indicate a defective heart. Observe pupils for structural defects of the skeleton such as a stoop or angular projection of the back, lateral curvatures, and unevenness in height of shoulders and hips. Look for bowlegs, knock-knees, limping, limbs of unequal length, and stiff joints. Examination for flat feet can be made by having the pupil remove his shoes or by the observation of a shuffling gait.

COLLECTING FACTS ON THE MENTAL CAPACITY OF CHILDREN

Tests of General Scholastic Aptitude

General scholastic aptitude, commonly referred to as general intelligence, is usually understood to be "ability to learn" or "ability to solve new problems." Tests which have been constructed to measure this aptitude are based on the assumption that all those who are judged by the test results have had common experiences and thus equal opportunity to learn the problems presented in the test. There is no known way of measuring mental power directly; hence, indirect measures are employed which indicate the results of learning situations. *Capacity* indicates the upper limit of possible development as determined by heredity and environment. As measured by our present intelligence tests, capacity is largely weighted with the ability to think in abstract rather than concrete situations; that is, the ability to deal with words, numbers, and other symbols. It is an aptitude to learn to read, to work problems expressed in words and symbols, to memorize verbal material. In the current general-intelligence test there has been an attempt to include situations with which the child has had experience in play or has had an opportunity to observe, or has learned as minimum essentials in school.

Because the verbal intelligence tests have been criticized as being partly culture-determined and contain items which individuals from certain social and economic levels have not had much opportunity to learn, there have been constructed tests reputed to be "culture free." The Davis-Eells Games (9) and the IPAT Culture-Free Test (7) represent different approaches

to the problem of providing intelligence tests as fair to one social and economic group as they are to another.

Another approach to the determination of intelligence is to measure the so-called *primary mental abilities*. Through the process of factor analysis, Thurstone has listed these abilities as (1) visual or spatial ability, (2) perceptual ability, (3) numerical ability, (4) logical or verbal-relations ability, (5) fluency in dealing with words, (6) memory, (7) inductive ability, (8) deductive ability, (9) ability to restrict the solution of a problem (25:5).

These tests yield information concerning certain rather specific mental abilities; thus they may be considered diagnostic. Tests of this kind are illustrated in The Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities (25), The Differential Aptitude Tests (DAT) (4), The Yale Educational Aptitude Tests (8), and The Halzinger-Crowder Uni-Factor Tests (14). The California Test of Mental Maturity (24) represents a type of test designed to yield information concerning a pupil's aptitude in terms of language and non-language factors.

Individual and Group Intelligence Tests

Individual intelligence tests must be given to one pupil at a time. The advantages usually cited in their favor are greater reliability and validity and the opportunity to observe the individual's behavior while taking the test. The examiner is able to make judgments concerning the pupil's emotional adjustment, motivation, working habits, physical aspects, alertness, and special interests. The individual test minimizes the errors of measurement due to faulty understanding of directions, lack of interest, and fatigue. These are important factors to consider when testing children under 8 years of age, the mentally defective, or the emotionally disturbed. The intelligence test is used extensively by the clinician in studying personality factors of the pupil. An examiner's check list may be obtained on which can be noted such characteristics as reaction to instructions, execution of the task, attitude toward self-performance, and conduct during and after the test (2).

Rarely does a classroom teacher have the training and experi-

ence to give such tests. The time required to administer individual intelligence tests, in addition to the requirement that the examiner be an expert, makes a testing program not merely expensive but actually prohibitive for small school systems unable to afford a psychometrist. For practical reasons, group intelligence tests have been constructed which can be administered to two or more people simultaneously. Furthermore, the typical classroom teacher can learn to use these tests by carefully studying the manuals provided with them and by meticulously following the directions.

Two types of group tests, classified as verbal and nonverbal, are available. The verbal test requires the pupil to read the exercises, or solve problems given orally, in words. The nonverbal test is administered by oral directions, by gesture, or by pantomime, and utilizes pictures, diagrams, geometrical figures, or other symbols instead of words. Both types of tests begin with a simple series of varied exercises and become increasingly difficult. The nonverbal examinations have been constructed for use with very young children, illiterates, and other individuals who cannot read or write the English language. •

Compared with the individual tests, group tests are more academic; thus, they are somewhat similar to a general achievement test. In the verbal type, the results are influenced by reading disability and amount of information acquired in school. An analysis of content will show they test knowledge of words or the extent of vocabulary; ability to solve arithmetic problems; ability to complete sentences; capacity to see logical relationships; and ability to read, to judge, and to use common sense. Because of their academic nature, they correlate upward from .40 with school marks and teacher ratings. Because of the detailed directions and objectivity of scoring, most of them have reliabilities higher than .85.

The results of group intelligence tests should be regarded somewhat skeptically when given to children under 8 years of age, because these children often have a faulty understanding of directions or an emotional disturbance caused by the testing situation. In fact, the group test assumes that intelligence includes the ability to listen well, to follow directions, and to ob-

serve. In addition to less expense, the advantages most frequently listed for the group intelligence test are (1) simplicity of administration—for example, the teacher can easily learn the directions, check the answers against a simple key, and interpret the results against established norms; (2) the fact that more questions can be answered in a shorter time; (3) greater reliability because of carefully defined directions and scoring; and (4) content sufficiently interesting to hold pupils' attention.

Regardless of these claims, such tests require considerable experience, training, and insight. Expertness in giving tests necessitates extensive training in psychology in general as well as in testing. In a group test the teacher cannot observe individual pupils. An expert has the ability to detect and allow for the many factors which affect a pupil's performance; he does not hesitate to use the pupil's present activities and past history in his interpretation of the results. At best a group intelligence test gives only a rough estimate; a single group test score for an individual pupil is of little value unless it is followed by other tests at intervals over a long period of time. Group intelligence tests should be used to describe groups rather than an individual pupil. They can be used, however, to select individuals who should be given the more refined individual intelligence tests.

The Uses of Intelligence Tests for Guidance

The real purpose of any test is to help the teacher understand the child. Intelligence tests do not tell the whole story about a child, but an understanding of him is incomplete unless his general mental capacity is known. The use of the results of a test will vary according to the needs of each child; therefore, it is impossible to be definite in listing uses for guidance purposes. Nevertheless, in the following excerpts from case studies, some actual and some hypothetical, we shall note many of the uses and misuses of intelligence tests that have been tried by teachers. Each case is preceded by a generalized function of the intelligence test.

1. The intelligence test helps the teacher to analyze individual problem cases, such as failing pupils, disciplinary problems, and personality difficulties.

Example: Don W. had been a "disciplinary case" in X school since his arrival one year ago. He was now in the fifth grade but apparently unable to do even fourth-grade work. His teacher, Miss J., determined to use him as a case study after a conference with her supervisor. She visited his home and found there two families—a father who with his second wife had a family of five children, and the father's oldest son who with his wife had a family of six children. Don was the oldest son of the second family. Socioeconomic status was low, and the older man, the patriarch of the group, apparently was an alcoholic. The entire family appeared to be substandard economically, culturally, and morally. An individual intelligence test was given to Don, and the results indicated an IQ of 110.

What is the significance of the result of this test? (1) It illustrates the erroneous conclusion that the intelligence test measures a pupil's capacity to make adequate adjustments in all of life's situations. (2) It indicates that environment does affect success in school achievement. In this case the diagnosis must be essentially directed toward other aspects of the personality than intelligence; e.g., what are the causes of the personality disturbances in this pupil? With improvement of personality adjustment he should be able to adjust academically. (3) The teacher should determine whether this pupil has had, or is getting, the necessary experiences upon which he can advance in relation to his native ability. (4) It illustrates the necessity of using an intelligence examination to provide information when the informal approach (through visiting the home) does not produce enough information. (5) The teacher should consult the psychometrist who gave the test to obtain her judgment on the interpretation of her written report on the personality of this pupil. For example, she had written the comment, "This pupil exhibits interest in the test, yet at times he seems unwilling to exert much effort. He shows a definite lack of self-confidence." (The teacher should note that even though Don has an apparent IQ of 110, his real IQ may be higher, since he apparently did not "exert as much effort" as he might have.)

Because of wide experience and training in giving intelligence tests, the psychometrist will be helpful in describing and analyzing personality adjustment. She may be able to suggest a program of educational activities for improving this adjustment.

2. The intelligence test helps the teacher to understand the child by providing a diagnostic evaluation of his mental abilities.

Example: James A. had a chronological age of 12 years, 9 months, and was referred to a specialist because of reading difficulties. The results of the Iowa Silent Reading Test, Elementary Test, Revised Form, indicated that he had a reading score of 3.5. However, on certain parts of the test he rated much higher than this. On sentence comprehension, for example, he scored to a level of 5.4, and on paragraph comprehension he obtained a grade level of 6.7. James was given an individual mental test, and on the Stanford-Binet, Form L, his IQ was 78. While giving the test the examiner noticed that his language ability was about that of a 10-year-old boy. Further investigations showed that he was living in a home of low socioeconomic status in which a foreign language was spoken. The examiner then had him read aloud certain portions of the Iowa Silent Reading Test upon which he had made scores equal to or better than the fifth grade. His attempts to read aloud ended in absolute failure. He failed to recognize most of the words and was exceedingly slow in reading the few words which he did know. Some of the questions he had previously answered correctly he could not read at all. He had answered questions on paragraph material far beyond the point to which he had been able to read.

What is the significance of the results of these tests? In addition to the dangers in the interpretation of group test results, it is quite evident that the language difficulty of this boy is sufficient to question the IQ score. Tests are tools the value of which depends upon the educational insight and ingenuity of the user. Potentially, the result of an IQ test may be either harmful or valuable. In this case the boy was being reared in a home of foreign parentage where a foreign language was still spoken. The validity of the IQ score obtained can therefore be questioned. To be valid the following assumption of intelligence testing must be met: All individuals measured have had common experiences. A test for children reared in homes of low economic status must be based on common experiences of other children of a low economic status. In other words, the child must be compared to others living in the same environment. Every teacher should know the social structure and the socioeconomic background of every pupil she has in her class. Equal opportunity to learn test content is rarely even approximated. Environmental

factors are most influential in the results of vocabulary tests, arithmetic-computation tests, and any other tests involving words or symbols.

3. An intelligence test will help a teacher to identify outstanding pupils of either high or low ability who need special educational procedures.

Example: Jane T. is in the sixth grade. She is 11 years old and has an IQ of 130. She is smaller than any pupil in class, yet she is as large as the average 11-year-old girl in the school. She seems socially adjusted and happy. Even though she is brighter than any in her group, she appears too immature to be placed in a junior high school group.

What is the significance here? (1) A knowledge of this pupil's approximate intelligence should help the teacher to arrange a sequence of experiences suitable to her ability. If she is permitted to do work on the level of class average, she may become lazy, uninterested, and possibly a "problem case." (2) This child is likely to remain in school much longer than her friends. It has been found that children who score highest on intelligence tests remain in school longest and that those who score lowest drop out earliest.

4. An intelligence test will help a teacher to interpret learning difficulty.

Example: Miss A. and Miss B. were assigned to the same school building and both given a fifth-grade class. From group intelligence tests it was found that the average IQ of Miss A.'s class was 90, while that of Miss B.'s class was 110.

What is the significance of these averages? The results were obtained from group intelligence tests; therefore, assuming that they were properly administered and scored, the teachers would be justified in planning their school work accordingly. Because Miss A. has a class of below-normal IQ, she should plan to use a great many concrete objects and illustrations. Many excursions should be carefully planned; motion pictures and other visual aids should be used appropriately. She should plan to make use of pupils' hobbies and many community and home experiences. All reading books should be simple; most of them should be at

the third- (or lower) grade level. She should plan many art, music, woodwork, and mechanics projects. Very little of the work should be in abstract form, and this must be frequently reviewed. She can expect numerous personality problems, especially during the first two months of school, until her plans begin to materialize.

Miss B. can plan to develop committee work and other types of self-initiated and self-maintained group activities. She can expect her pupils to read fifth-grade books, and some will be able to read at high school level. She can expect abstract thinking. Audio-visual aids can be used profitably if pupils are challenged to absorb their content and meaning. Children with high IQ's will require less drill and will respond to instruction that leads to interpretation and relationships of information learned. Most of her pupils will enjoy reading and will participate intelligently in class discussions.

In writing, drawing, art, mechanics, woodwork, sewing, and cooking neither teacher can predict success or failure. Equal opportunities should be provided in both classes for these experiences.

Some Concluding Remarks Regarding Intelligence Tests

The use of intelligence tests alone cannot give the teacher all the facts needed to understand the whole child. Performance in an intelligence test cannot be considered an isolated phenomenon outside the environmental context in which the activity takes place. An IQ is meaningless unless it can be verified and supplemented by other data. An untrained and inexperienced teacher can jeopardize her pupils by relying entirely upon the facts derived from an intelligence test. Frequently, for example, a teacher judges as dull and hopeless a pupil who has admirable potentialities. This pupil may show little interest in his school work, proceed in his own individual manner, devote a large proportion of his time to hobbies and reading of his own liking, and yet have a high IQ.

Group intelligence tests, especially, have been abused by misuse. Worcester (35) gives several concrete and significant examples. A boy of 10 years and 2 months of age was found to be a

nonreader, and after being given a Henmon-Nelson Test was given an IQ score of 86:

He was a boy with a slight speech defect, and . . . had had poliomyelitis 2 or 3 years earlier. On the Stanford-Binet, Form L, this fellow showed an IQ of 115. This is another startling example of the inadequacy of the typical group test for a person with a serious reading defect. In this particular instance the boy had an excellent speaking vocabulary. His Stanford-Binet vocabulary level was 2 years beyond his chronological age and in his conversation he exhibited an unusual fluency in language. However, he had not learned to recognize words which he knew.

[Another case was that of] a child who had been given the Kuhlmann-Anderson Test and had secured an IQ rating on it of 84. On the Stanford-Binet she had an IQ of 106. Still more recently . . . there came two individuals—one whose school record blank showed a Pintner General Ability Test of 64 and one a Henmon-Nelson IQ of 62. Both were referred as reading problems. The first of these on Stanford-Binet, Form M, secured an IQ of 104, a difference of 40 points; the second attained a Stanford-Binet, Form L, IQ of 90, a difference of 28 points. On each of these scores the Stanford-Binet rating was more likely to be truly representative of the real ability of the individual than was that of the group test (35:779).

Certainly, no group test of any kind should be given unless provision can be made for individual study of each pupil who takes it. Teachers should be cautious in using a wide-scale intelligence testing program to determine the kinds of training to give to children. Even in the first grade, children are often segregated in fast and slow groups partly on the basis of their intelligence. This is an undemocratic procedure if continued throughout the grades. For reasons of validity the practice is particularly hazardous when used with a separate cultural group or a group of pupils of low economic status.

Teachers should always be willing to give all pupils the benefit of the doubt. Certainly an arbitrary attitude is unwarranted, because the potential limits of any pupil cannot be determined with sufficient accuracy to justify an absolute judgment on test results. The many exceptions make predictions dangerous; therefore, every pupil deserves a period of trial.

COLLECTING DATA ABOUT THE PUPIL BY USE OF ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Achievement of What?

In our discussion of intelligence tests we have frequently referred to achievement as a form of learning. What the child does in an intelligence-testing situation is determined by how much he has achieved and how well he can use what he has achieved. In this sense the intelligence test is an achievement test; and in the case of the verbal group intelligence test, the intelligence test is an *academic-achievement test*.

Our reference to achievement tests, however, shall be directed to the degree of the pupil's achievement of the objectives of education: how much and how well has he learned those things he should learn in the elementary school? Achievement in this sense is related closely to evaluation of what the school is accomplishing. Achievement cannot be measured unless there has first been formulated a set of specific objectives in terms of specific pupil behavior. These objectives will include not only acquisition of academic information and skills but also interests, attitudes, appreciations, physical health, and personal-social adaptability. The objectives, once formulated, then lead directly to the question, "What tests are available which will help determine how well the objectives have been accomplished?" If the total picture of pupil progress is to be obtained, it is evident that facts will have to be accumulated by three types of evaluation devices: (1) devices involving verbal or mathematical language, (2) devices of a nonlanguage type, and (3) devices of direct observation of behavior and products of performance. This will include tests, rating scales, anecdotal records, interviews, and observational techniques. In our present discussion we shall limit our attention to achievement tests to those of a standardized type.

Characteristics of the Standard Achievement Test

The standardized test is usually constructed by selecting test items from the most commonly taught subject areas as indicated in widely adopted textbooks, courses of study, and statements of

educational objectives. The items are then subjected to statistical procedures and either eliminated or scaled according to age, intelligence, socioeconomic status, geographical location, grade, and so on. The raw scores are converted into age or grade scores, time limits are established, directions are standardized, and interpretations are made according to established norms and scoring procedures. Achievement tests in the school subjects are more numerous and more widely used than any other kind. They attempt to evaluate whole subjects or large units of material. The best tests attempt to measure several abilities or specialized phases of ability within a subject, e.g., reading and arithmetic.

Grade norms are of little use to these modern schools which no longer use the grading system for grouping pupils. Furthermore, the grade-placement of curriculum materials varies from school to school and from year to year. Those schools which introduce subjects earlier in the course of study are more likely to equal or exceed norms of standardized achievement tests.

Achievement Tests in the Separate Subject Areas

It is impossible for an achievement test to provide a detailed evaluation of all aspects of the school subjects. Too often the measurement is concerned with trivial details or facts. Standardized achievement tests have probably been most valuable in the tool subjects, where the instructional objectives vary least from classroom to classroom. Because the main purpose of an achievement test is to improve learning, it follows that the real value of a separate subject-area test is diagnostic. It is not primarily to determine a grade. Inasmuch as no two pupils are alike, in an ideal school there will be at least as many standards as there are pupils.

Of achievement tests in the separate subject areas, those which measure the various aspects of reading are most significant. To study eye movements, photographs are made of the number of stops that the eye makes per line, the number of regressions, the duration of fixation, the rhythm of eye movement, and return sweep to the next line. Test batteries are available which will measure the rate of reading and of ability to understand the main idea of a paragraph or to note details. These tests must be

supplemented by observation, interview, questionnaire, and other techniques frequently mentioned earlier. Standardized tests may be secured to measure the primary reading ability of words, sentences, and paragraphs.

In arithmetic, tests of achievement are available for evaluation, vocabulary, and quantitative relationships, the computational skills, arithmetical ideas and concepts, and for judging the sufficiency of given data to solve a problem. In the measurement of the language arts, some attempts have been made to determine language expression in writing, grammar, usage, and appreciation. The teacher continues to have the responsibility for evaluating such qualities in language as originality and fluency of expression.

The standardized pencil and paper tests in health deal with health knowledge and attitude. Performance scales aid the evaluation of particular games and sports. It is now possible to obtain standardized tests on work-study skills which measure the ability to read maps, charts, graphs, and tables. Evaluation is also made on the use of the dictionary and the locating of reference books to which one would go for particular facts and information. Tests of critical thinking, such as ability to obtain facts to draw conclusions, to apply general facts, and to interpret data, are available for elementary school pupils. As is true of other tests of achievement, however, they cannot be relied upon solely for evaluation without supplementary observation.

The Use of Standardized Tests of Educational Achievement

Some typical uses and misuses of standardized tests of educational achievement are illustrated in the following case studies:

Example: At the end of every school year for the past five years in the city of X there have been published the results of the annual spring achievement tests. This year a second grade in Jefferson School showed an advancement of 14 months over the preceding year, while the second grade at Lincoln School advanced 8 months.

How should this case be interpreted? (1) An analysis of the conditions surrounding this survey supports the point of view

that the publication of these test results should be considered unethical and unprofessional because they are grossly misleading. In the first place, the pupils in the grade making the most advancement were from the districts of the better residential areas. The pupils in the other grade lived in the slum area of the city. Actually an average growth of 14 months after a year's instruction in the one grade was less significant than the 8 months' advancement in the other grade. Measurement indicates the progress, but not its significance. (2) Publication of standard achievement-test results causes teachers to worry about the excess number of pupils of lower ability in their rooms who are going to bring the class average down. (3) Administering standard achievement tests at the finish of each school year has questionable value. How can teachers use the results of these tests for diagnostic and remedial purpose after the school year has finished? (4) In a school system where standardized achievement tests are given annually, it is quite likely that the teachers are busily preparing their pupils through drill and repetition to make a good showing. The activities of each room are limited by the content of the test. In other words, the test is the course of study. Emphasis on the results of standardized achievement tests will confine instruction to the development of certain skills and the mastery of subject matter instead of encouraging a concern for educating pupils to meet the needs of the individual and society. The major emphasis will be focused upon reading, writing, and arithmetic rather than upon the development of ability to plan and work with others in a coöperative manner, to appreciate the beautiful in art and literature, to increase an understanding of social and economic concepts, and to adopt a wholesome attitude toward democratic government. (5) Standardized educational-achievement tests are usually verbal in nature. Because of the reading skill needed, the results of such tests are questionable for pupils below the third grade.

Example: A city board of education employed a university professor to make a survey of the city schools. The expert immediately administered a well-known standardized achievement test. The results were published in the city newspaper and presented as an argument that all grades in the city were far below national averages.

How should this case be interpreted? (1) In this city the teachers and administrators had inaugurated a no-grade system. Therefore, it was a hypothetical procedure, to say the least, to compare a no-grade school system to the grade norms of a standardized test. (2) The teachers of this city school system had made definite attempts to develop such traits as critical thinking, effective social living, and meaningfulness and understanding. In arithmetic, for example, meaningfulness and social arithmetic were emphasized in the form of problem-solving. The achievement examination stressed computational skill. (3) The census of this city showed that over 50 percent of the population was of a definite racial stock. The presence of other common racial minorities in the remaining 50 percent made the population quite different from the population upon which the test had been standardized. Norms have little significance unless the population measured is comparable to the selected population upon which the test is standardized.

Example: Miss J. chose a standardized arithmetic test and another standardized geography test for her sixth grade. After computing the results she found that John D., one of her 12-year-old boys, was exactly eight months above the national norm in both tests.

How should this case be interpreted? The group used in standardizing the arithmetic test was an entirely different group from the group on which the geography test was standardized. Both tests had norms for 12-year-olds, but the teacher would be unjustified in saying that her pupil had the same degree of achievement in the two subjects. Only when tests of the same quality and form are given, with norms established at the same time and under the same conditions for the same groups of pupils and schools, can they be used for comparison between subject and subject.

Example: Miss D. was disappointed to find her second-grade pupils below the national average in a standardized spelling test. She determined to use the test for diagnostic purposes.

How should this case be interpreted? Spelling tests are particularly difficult to use for achievement testing because of the varied objectives and spelling lists found in almost every school

system. In the spelling test in question were found, for example, such words as seed, ditch, gate, broke, wagon. These were words with which city children are not always familiar, and in Miss D.'s group there were only one or two pupils who would know the words well enough to use them easily in their spontaneous writing. In this case, the teacher went through the test and marked those words which had never been considered in the units of work in her grade. It was soon clear to her that she had chosen the wrong test for her needs. Standardized tests may evaluate the pupils' achievement of objectives which have not been the real basis of school activities.

Example: Mr. B. gave his sixth-grade class a standardized test in arithmetic. He was satisfied to find his class equal to the national norm and resolved to continue use of the same textbook, methods, and general procedure of teaching arithmetic in a separate period as he had been doing.

How should this case be interpreted? Mr. B. used the standardized test as many of his colleagues are doing. He should have examined the exact content of this test item for item and have calculated the percentages of correct responses to individual items. In his class of 40 pupils it would not have been unusual to find that 8 of them could not add correctly a simple column of seven one-digit numbers. This type of addition should have been learned in the fourth grade. His class performed up to a certain norm, yet many pupils failed to work problems they should have learned in previous grades. Mr. B. did not receive the full benefit from this test because he (1) ignored individual performance, (2) ignored the need for individual standards, (3) ignored test content, (4) ignored pupil performance on each specific test item, and (5) should not have been satisfied with reaching the national norm. The real fact was that his class showed only an average performance. Should a teacher be satisfied with average work? Test norms never tell us what ought to be, either for groups or for individual pupils. The abilities, interests, experiences, purposes, and motivations of each pupil differ from those of a group of pupils just as much as one child differs from another.

Summary of Uses of Standardized Achievement Tests

The results of standardized achievement tests should contribute to the total information a teacher has about the whole child. If the results are used wisely they should be an important aid to the improvement of teaching. The teacher will find achievement tests useful (1) to discover deficiencies in the fundamental skills of reading, arithmetic, and the language arts. (2) To help her plan the school program to meet the needs of each pupil. This planning should be in the form of a diagnostic and remedial attack. (3) To help her find pupils who need the same kind of instruction on specific areas. By grouping pupils temporarily into small groups having the same difficulty, she can economize her valuable time. (4) To help pupils find their areas of subject-matter difficulty. (5) To help maintain a proper balance in school activities to allow time for developing fundamental subject-matter skills and social development. It also aids the teacher to keep a proper balance of ultimate learning in the subject areas. For example, a class which is weak in arithmetic and strong on social information indicates that the teacher needs to place more emphasis on social arithmetic and its accompanying arithmetic skills. (6) To help locate causes of personality maladjustments. A pupil with insufficient experiential background will suffer in educational achievement, and this in turn may have an accompanying emotional disturbance.

COLLECTING DATA INDICATIVE OF SPECIAL APTITUDE

The Significance of Individual Talents to Guidance

It is proper to assume that any elementary school child is capable of special talent; that is, he will be capable of doing some things better than others. Some pupils may also have talents permitting them to attain a higher degree of accomplishment than other pupils. To date we have no valid and reliable instruments for use in the elementary school on which we can exclusively rely to help us collect data concerning these talents. There are a few tests for this purpose, but they must be supported by

data collected by other means. It is certain that even though a pupil has a special talent, its development will depend upon his physiological growth, his past experiences, and his present opportunities to learn. Mastery and successful achievement will lead to attitudes and interests favorable to higher levels of accomplishment. It behooves each teacher, then, to provide for a wide variety of activities which will permit promising talents to develop and latent talents to emerge. Although we cannot predict with accuracy the ultimate outcome of apparent interests and talents of elementary school pupils, we can predict that unless these talents are awakened and encouraged during the elementary school years they may lie dormant for the entire life span.

What Are Some of the Special Aptitudes?

Special aptitudes have been considered by some psychologists as special forms of intelligence. A boy who, for example, has a talent for handling tools, for taking a clock apart and reassembling it, or for repairing his bicycle, is said to have a kind of mechanical intelligence. Another child who gets along well with people and can lead or follow easily is described as having a kind of social intelligence. Experimental data have been obtained to indicate that neither mechanical nor social intelligence may correlate highly with abstract intelligence. Rather than think of these traits as types of intelligence, it is probably more useful to consider them as special abilities. Thinking of them as abilities will permit us to include other types of abilities, such as musical ability and art ability. If we think of them as aptitudes we can then extend our consideration to such aptitude tests as manual dexterity, clerical work, teaching, nursing, medicine, and law. Whether these tests measure innate aptitude or achievement need not concern us as elementary school teachers. Let us maintain an optimum environment wherein any unsuspected talent may emerge or wherein beginning talents of promise may continue to develop.

Musical Aptitude

That musical aptitude is present to a greater degree in some pupils than in others in the elementary grades we cannot deny; the degree to which it will be developed we cannot predict. The

elementary school should provide an environment in which the child is surrounded by music and has a teacher who is interested in it. If the child demonstrates talent and interest he should be placed as often as possible in a special musical environment equipped with suitable musical instruments and with teachers with musical ability.

The available tests for musical talent assume that aptitude for music is not to be considered as a single and simple capacity. Rather it is an organization of many single capacities, such as those measured by the Seashore Test of Musical Talent; that is, the capacities to (1) discriminate pitch within certain limits, (2) sense intensity, (3) sense time, (4) sense rhythm, (5) sense timbre, and (6) remember tones. This assumption of specificity has been the basis of criticism of all aptitude testing and may account for the deficiencies of such tests in discriminating among above-average levels of talent.

Mechanical Aptitude

A mechanical aptitude is indicated in an ability to handle tools, apparatus, and machines. The tests available offer a rough indication of the degree of talent possessed by a pupil. These tests may be classified as either (1) mechanical-assembly tests, (2) spatial-relations tests, or (3) tests of mechanical information.

Artistic Aptitude

As yet a satisfactory program of measuring artistic capacity in general has not been developed. There are, however, available standardized tests for discriminative abilities in painting, drawing, modeling, and architecture. The teacher who provides the opportunity and freedom for artistic expression can soon discover talents for art without the use of formalized tests.

THE USE OF TESTS IN STUDYING THE PERSONALITY OF THE CHILD

Classification of Approaches to the Study of Personality

Psychologists have used a myriad of approaches to the study of personality, but of the many instruments devised only a few have any significance for the classroom teacher. When we extend

our limitation to tests of a standardized nature applicable to pupils of the elementary school, we have an even smaller number. Many of the techniques may properly be used only by clinicians, psychiatrists, or well-trained psychologists. It is convenient to present a complete picture of the approaches to personality by listing some broad classifications as follows: (1) adjustment schedules; (2) rating devices; (3) performance tests; (4) tests of knowledge and judgment; (5) observational records; (6) organized behavior descriptions; (7) external physical signs; (8) free association; (9) laboratory techniques involving apparatus; (10) psychiatric interviewing, including psychoanalysis; (11) the autobiography and life history; (12) projective techniques.

From these approaches the classroom teacher may obtain inspiration not only in gathering information about the child but also a new philosophy of teaching techniques. We shall limit our discussion in this section to certain commercial, standardized, and semistandardized devices which the teacher may use in the elementary schools.

The Uses and Limitations of the Adjustment Schedule

Adjustment schedules may be classified as self-report blanks, adjustment questionnaires, or self-inventories. The essential purpose of these devices is to estimate the pupil's degree of adjustment or maladjustment. They are constructed in the form of questions designed to reveal attitudes, feelings, and behavior indicative of maladjustment. From the response of a representative sampling of pupils, norms are established. The questions require the pupil to give an opinion of himself concerning his habitual behavior and attitudes of likes, dislikes, self-comparisons, and beliefs.

The uses of these schedules are limited because of the difficulty in formulating questions which are understood by, and have the same meaning for, all pupils. A child may give what he thinks is a good answer, yet the answer may not be verified in actual conduct. The objective and nonexternal definitions of a trait do not always denote the same conduct. Human feelings may appear externally similar yet actually have different degrees of significance if the pupil attaches different values to them; for example,

two pupils may answer "Yes" to the question, "Do you ever get stage fright?" One pupil may be frightened before an assembly group but not before his class. The other pupil may be frightened in either situation.

In schedules asking for responses of "Yes," "No," and "?" there is no way to account for the degree of intensity of a symptom. The seriousness of intensity on one or two items may never emerge in the total score. Furthermore, a personality test usually measures the present state of the pupil and does not consider the future. For example, "Do you cry easily?" may be answered "Yes" by a pupil, but the next day he may feel much better and answer "No."

Because most of the adjustment schedules available employ undisguised questions, it is easy for a pupil to answer a question not as he feels but rather as he thinks the teacher would like to have it answered. Many pupils are reluctant to reveal unfavorable aspects of their personalities. If the pupil is not honest and frank in expressing his real feelings about himself, then that which he says may not correspond to what he does.

Some tests deliberately present questions in such a way as not to afford the pupil a degree of justification for an unfavorable response. The California Test of Personality, for example, avoids asking, "Do you play truant?" but determines the same item by asking, "Are things frequently so bad at school you just naturally stay away?" The whole question of truthfulness rather frequently depends on the attitude of the examiner. The pupils must have confidence in, and friendliness toward, the examiner. They must realize that the examination is worthless unless their answers are honest, sincere, frank, and spontaneous.

On the elementary level it is advisable to be extremely cautious in interpreting the scores of an adjustment schedule. However, when supplemented by other data, they can be useful for identifying some of the pupils (not all) who need special aid in adjustment. They may even uncover unsuspected personal problems through attention to a pupil's answers to specific questions. A thorough analysis of the answers may also disclose clues to the basis of the adjustment difficulty.

One of the highest values of the adjustment schedule is its use

as a basis of interview conference or in conjunction with other sources of information. When a child admits or denies something about himself when all other evidence indicates otherwise, there is significance in the response. When many children in a group show what seems to be an uncommon tendency to be anxious or afraid, it may be wise for the teacher to examine the environment of the school for the underlying cause.

Some Examples of Adjustment Schedules for Elementary School Pupils

The Maller Case Inventory

This inventory is aimed at four aspects of adjustment in terms of emotional-response patterns: adjustment, honesty, ethical judgment, and integration. A controlled-association test, which requires the pupil to choose between two possible word associations with 50 stimulus words, attempts to measure emotional-response patterns. The pupil's score is determined by the number of irrational choices or associations. The adjustment test consists of 50 self-inventory items, and the honesty test consists of 15 self-scoring items on the subject of sports and hobbies. Honesty is reflected in the pupil's willingness to raise his score in preference to admitting his ignorance of knowledge which he does not possess. Ethical judgment is measured by asking 9 questions presented in two dual-choice discrimination alternatives from which two scores are obtainable. One score equals the number of correct ethical discriminations and the other score equals the pupil's own code of behavior in relation to disagreement with the ethical pattern. The administration of the test is simple enough for the classroom teacher, and the scoring is uncomplicated except for the necessity of doubling the honesty and ethical-judgment scores.

The California Test of Personality, Elementary Series

This test may be used for pupils above the third grade. It is divided into two parts, self adjustment and social adjustment, and each part is subdivided into six sections of 12 items each. Some of the items of which the test is composed are, "Is it easy for you to recite in class?" "May you usually choose your own

friends?" "Do you often meet people who are so mean you hate them?" "Do you bite your finger nails often?"

Aspects of Personality Test

The traits of ascendance-submission, extroversion-introversion, and emotionality are measured. For each of these three traits there are 35 statements, after each of which the pupil indicates whether he feels the "same" or "different." The statements were selected from other inventories designed specifically for these three aspects of personality and for different age levels, by a subjective analysis of the traits and the items on the basis of the author's judgment, and upon the statistical criterion that an item should correlate more highly with the total score on the trait in which it was included than with the other two traits. The classroom teacher may administer the inventory as a group test, the sample items being read and explained by her.

The Brown Personality Inventory for Children

The Brown Personality Inventory for Children is applicable for pupils above the third grade. There are 80 items, consisting of questions about behavior and feelings with "Yes" or "No" alternatives, and aimed at the degree of adjustment in the home and school, physical symptoms, insecurity, and irritability. The items for this test were selected from literature on the neurotic child and validated in terms of internal consistency with the total score on the test. A classroom teacher can administer the test and score the responses.

Rogers' Test of Personality Adjustment

Four aspects of the personality are measured by this test: feelings of personal inferiority, social adjustment, family adjustment, and daydreaming. Feelings of personal inferiority are revealed by scores indicating the extent of feelings of physical or mental inadequacy on the part of the pupil. Social maladjustment is scored on the extent to which he is unhappy in his group contacts, poor at making friends, lacking in the social skills. The family-adjustment score indicates the degree of his conflict and maladjustment in his relations with his parents or siblings, such

as jealousies, antagonisms, feelings of being rejected, or over-dependence. The daydreaming score indicates the extent to which he indulges in fantasies and unrealistic thinking as a means of escaping from his problems. This is one of the few available devices which attempts to locate the daydreaming pupil.

The items for this test were derived from interviewing techniques employed by clinical psychologists and psychiatrists in working with children. Attempts were made to arrange statements to increase frankness of response, and opportunities for overstatement were provided with the expectation that falsified attitudes would be exaggerated to the point of detection.

Among other devices, the pupil is asked to (1) rank the most preferred 3 out of a list of 16 presented vocations, such as housewife, teacher, movie star, policeman, doctor, engineer; (2) rank the 3 strongest wishes in a list of 15, such as "to be stronger than I am now," "to have the boys and girls like me better," "to get along better with my father and mother"; (3) write the names of the three people whom you would most prefer to take with you if you were going to live on a desert island; (4) write a sentence describing a fictitious boy or girl in relation to strength, interest, appearance, social acceptability, or relationships to parents. The pupil then answers the questions, "Am I just like him?" and "Do I wish to be just like him?" Teachers who use this test must give the manual careful study to learn the details of administration and manner of scoring.

SRA Youth Inventory (22)

This inventory, which is comprised of a check list of 298 questions, was constructed with the coöperation of over 15,000 teenagers throughout the country. The questions, however, are adapted to elementary school children. Adolescents throughout the country were asked to state anonymously in their own words what things bothered them most. From the essays a careful analysis was made by trained psychologists and checked against the results of previous youth surveys. The final questions selected have been stated in the terminology of the young people themselves. The current needs and problems of young people are

divided into eight major areas: (1) My School, (2) After High School, (3) About Myself, (4) Getting Along with Others, (5) My Home and Family, (6) Boy Meets Girl, (7) Health, and (8) Things in General.

In its present form the test can be completed in about 30 minutes. The inventory may be scored by the students themselves either immediately after the demonstration or at a later period. Suggestions are given on how the student himself may use the results. These are followed by possible uses of the inventory by teachers, counselors, and administrators. The authors, H. H. Remmers and Benjamin Shimberg (20), have arranged and standardized this inventory in such a satisfactory and thorough manner that it is one of the best available tests for the teen-age pupil. Elementary school teachers and pupils at and above the fourth grade will also find it a useful medium for diagnosing and treating personality problems of maladjustment.

Available Rating Scales Suitable for Elementary School Pupils

Rating scales present a definite list of traits or characteristics; the rater gives his judgment by checking those which apply. The soundness of a rating depends upon such factors as the extent to which the behavior or characteristic in question is clearly described and whether its appearance, when it occurs, can be readily perceived. The competence and conscientiousness of the rater, and the extent to which he is able to judge any one aspect of a pupil's behavior without being biased by information or attitudes he already possesses regarding the pupil, are all important factors in the soundness of ratings.

When a teacher uses a rating scale checked by a competent judge, she should have assurance that the rater has had an opportunity to become acquainted with the pupil and to observe him on the traits checked. The rater must also have been willing to give an unbiased opinion regardless of long association and friendship. Generally, if a pupil is considered low in one aspect of adjustment, there is a tendency to rate him lower than he may be in other aspects. Likewise, the rater should be aware of the influence of a highly admired trait on possible undeserved

GUIDANCE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

ratings or related traits. In either case the term "halo effect" can be applied. When examiners have adequate sincerity, enthusiasm, and observational powers, and when several ratings are averaged for each pupil, the data may be a valuable supplement in helping the teacher understand the pupil. Reference has already been made to some of the rating scales described below, but we can now deal in more detail with the traits for which the device is designed. Mention will also be made of the techniques used in administering the scales, and the method by which the various levels of each trait are presented.

The Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedule

There are presented in this device two schedules, the first a list of 15 problems to be rated as to frequency of occurrence, the second a 35-point rating scale. Among the problems listed are cheating, lying, temper outburst, speech difficulties, imaginative lying, sex offenses, truancy, and defiance of discipline. The seriousness of the total score was determined from clinical records for a group of pupils upon whom the schedule was standardized. The traits in the second schedule are classified into four groups: intellectual, physical, social, and emotional. In the standardization of this scale it was found that the ratings could discriminate between pupils likely to be sent to principals and those who are not. Ratings also discriminated well between pupils who had been referred to a child-guidance clinic and "normal" pupils. Classroom teachers may use this scale if they study the instructions in the manual carefully. The manual also contains instructions for use and interpretation. The teacher is cautioned not to apply norms to all pupils and to supplement the ratings with other data.

The Winnetka Scale for Rating School Behavior and Attitudes

This scale is based on observations and records of classroom behavior incidents and consists of 13 classroom situations, each provided with five or more specific levels of behavior. The norms are based on approximately 1200 pupils. The 13 classroom situations are grouped into the following five categories on the basis of a factor analysis: coöperation, social consciousness, emotional

control, leadership, and responsibility. The instructions advise that the pupil be observed over a two-year period and the ratings combined at the end of each year into a composite rating on each of the five traits.

The Vineland Social Maturity Scale

The examiner is required to base his judgment upon a detailed interview either with an adult well acquainted with the subject or with the subject himself. The subject's social age divided by his chronological age gives a social quotient. This, with other kinds of scores, provides easily understood measures of social adjustment. The pupil is rated on social maturity on eight personality traits: self-help, general; self-help, eating; self-help, dressing; self-direction; occupation; communication; locomotion; and socialization. Only those teachers who have had extensive training and experience in clinical testing are qualified to use this test.

The SRA Junior Inventory

Adequately standardized, the SRA Junior Inventory promises to be an excellent and practical instrument to measure adjustment. It can be scored by pupils either immediately after the test or at a later period. From the essays of thousands of children a check list was organized to indicate adjustments in relation to school, after school, self, getting along with others, home and family life, boy-girl relationships, health, and "Things in General."

SUMMARY STATEMENT ON THE USE OF TESTS

The tests of personality of elementary school children are still in an experimental stage and should be used with the utmost caution by the teacher. Even the available paper-and-pencil devices described in the above paragraphs would be more useful if administered and interpreted by the specialist, who has had adequate training and experience with children. Unless a teacher has had some training in guidance, it may be unwise to use these

tests at all. In any case, any personality inventory should be supplemented by data from systematic observations and anecdotal records of the pupil's emotional and social behavior. The personality of a child must be seen as a complete unit. It does little good to single out a pupil as an extreme introvert unless all other factors are determined, including the cause and effect. Much harm can be done by an amateur who makes impetuous judgments and literal interpretations on the results of a test. An even greater injustice occurs when the results of a test are entered in a cumulative record. This information placed in the hands of an amateur may unfairly type a pupil during his entire school career.

Valuable as paper-and-pencil tests may be in the fields of personality, intelligence, and achievement, we can look forward to the further refinement of even more valuable tests—the *life-situation test*, *spontaneity test*, and *role test*. In all of these new tests, motor and emotional factors as well as intellectual factors are involved in the performance. Already we can note the influence of the "action-testing school" in such instruments of measurement as the Wechsler-Bellevue Scales scores and the psychometric principles underlying them. In these tests the pupil is subjected to numerous emergency and problem situations taken from everyday living.

In the case of intelligence and achievement testing we have been interested in what the child is *able* to do. Perhaps we should be more concerned about what the child *does* do. The way a child behaves does not depend so much on his ability to act as upon a complexity of attitudinal, emotional, and motivational factors too much neglected in our study of the child. Whether the child will use his learning or not is a factor of the setting in which the learning is acquired. Perhaps we should not be as concerned about what the child knows as in establishing a setting where such learning will be used effectively. The purpose of tests should be to provide facts that help us to predict how the learner will act in certain situations, rather than merely giving us an estimate of present ability.

To be an effective guidance person and counselor the teacher must have a background of pupil data in mind so she may have

some understanding of the weaknesses and strengths and the present developmental level of each pupil. Unfortunately, this cannot be done solely by the inauguration of a technical program of testing, desirable as that may be. After we have the facts and interpretation our task is only begun, because we have yet to plan the educational program based upon these facts.

The more informal devices (see Chapters 3 and 4) by which teachers can collect data about the pupil should be considered carefully. Although these devices are usually classified as subjective rather than objective, they are generally more meaningful to the teacher who collects the facts than to the teacher who uses them. Without them a teacher is never justified in using the scores of the more objective standardized tests.

THE SELECTION AND EVALUATION OF STANDARD TESTS

The selection of a test is a significant feature of guidance procedures. Its administration and interpretation are even more crucial. It follows, therefore, that no teacher should be satisfied to select a test as the result of a short description of its features in a test catalogue or textbook. Something must be known concerning the procedures of its standardization, especially the characteristics of the population from which norms were derived, the methods and criteria by which it was validated, and the methods by which its reliability was determined. Furthermore, in the case of an achievement test, it must be examined item by item to see if it measures the objectives of the teacher. Does it measure what the teacher has attempted to teach? Have the pupils been given sufficient experiential background to understand the vocabulary and terminology involved?

With these prerequisites in mind, there can be no particular advantage in attempting to describe all the available tests of a commercial and standardized nature in this text. Before a teacher can hope to be qualified to use these tests, she must have had instruction in evaluation, which includes tests and measurements. She must be thoroughly familiar with the contents of recent professional studies on measurement and evaluation.

SUMMARY

Standardized tests are indispensable to intelligent guidance. They can be of service in helping the teacher to evaluate progress toward objectives, to help justify a modern curriculum, and to help attend to individual differences.

Notwithstanding these benefits, standardized tests are not above criticism. Representative criticisms are that (1) they may develop a false picture of the child; (2) they are misleading in their ease of administration and interpretation; (3) the older tests are of limited educational significance; (4) they can repress pupil and teacher initiative; (5) the use of norms has defeated the recognition of individual differences.

The values of standardized achievement tests can be summarized as follows: (1) they help reveal deficiencies in the fundamental skills of reading, arithmetic, and the language arts; (2) they aid the teacher to plan the school program to meet the needs of each pupil; (3) they aid the teacher to find pupils who need the same kind of instruction on specific areas; (4) they aid the pupils in finding their areas of subject-matter difficulty; (5) they help the teacher to keep a proper balance in school activities between time spent on developing fundamental subject-matter skills and time spent on social development; (6) they help the teacher locate causes of personality maladjustments.

The more formalized procedures of studying the personality are (1) adjustment schedules; (2) rating devices; (3) performance tests; (4) tests of knowledge and judgment; (5) observational records; (6) organized behavior descriptions; (7) external physical signs; (8) free association; (9) laboratory techniques involving apparatus; (10) psychiatric interviewing, including psychoanalysis; (11) the autobiography and life story; (12) projective techniques. Of these techniques the classroom teacher will find practical only the self-inventory; rating devices; tests of knowledge, judgment, and conduct; records of observations; and behavior descriptions.

The essential purpose of adjustment schedules is to estimate the pupil's degree of adjustment or maladjustment. Their use is limited because of the difficulty in formulating questions which are understood by, and have the same meaning for, all pupils.

Frequently a child may give what he considers a good answer; yet the answer may not be verified in actual conduct. Then, too, because most of the adjustment schedules available employ undisguised questions, it is easy for a pupil to answer a question not as he feels but rather as he thinks the teacher would like to have it answered. The adjustment schedule has proved to be especially valuable, however, as a basis of interview.

The tests of personality require interpretation by an experienced and well-qualified person. In all cases the results of personality tests should be supplemented by data from systematic observations and anecdotal records. The purpose of tests should be to provide facts helping us to predict how the learner will act in certain situations rather than merely giving us an estimate of present ability.

Schedule for a Basic Testing Program

The basic or minimum testing program must develop according to the characteristics and needs of a particular school. Certainly no testing program should be launched until there are developed the ways and means for interpreting test scores for those personnel who can most profitably use them. The following is a suggested minimum testing program:

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Time of Administration</i>	<i>Type of Test</i>
Kindergarten	End of Year	Reading readiness
First	Beginning of year	Mental ability
Second		
Third	Beginning of year	Mental ability
Third	End of Year	Tests of achievement
Fourth	Beginning of year	Diagnostic reading test
Fifth		
Sixth	End of Year	Tests of achievement
Seventh		
Eighth	End of Year	Tests of achievement

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. Outline the things the teacher needs to know about the child.
2. How would you answer the question, "Shall Tests Go out of the

Window?" a title used for an article in the periodical *Educational Leadership*? Why?

3. List the advantages and disadvantages of the standardized achievement test.
4. Should the classroom teacher or a school nurse use such tests as (1) the Eames Eye Test, (2) the Betts Telebinocular Test, (3) the Holmgren test for color blindness?
5. How can the intelligence test be used for guidance of elementary school pupils?
6. Under what circumstances would you use an individual intelligence test? A group intelligence test?
7. Under what circumstances may the achievement test determine educational objectives? Are these circumstances ever justified?
8. How can standardized achievement tests be used as instruments of guidance?
9. Should a musical-aptitude test be used in the guidance of a fourth-grade pupil? Why or why not?
10. What are the essential differences between a standardized personality test and an informal, nonstandardized test?

CHAPTER 6

Guiding the Individual Child

GUIDING THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD VERSUS GUIDING THE GROUP

The center of attention thus far has been on the individual child. It is unwise to digress from this point of view because the individual child should not lose his identity as a human being even when he becomes a member of a group. There are, however, certain aspects of adequate guidance of the individual which can be provided most effectively and economically through group guidance.

Individual guidance, just as individual instruction, is significant in the guidance program. A conference between teacher and pupil, for example, is often the only way of developing an understanding relationship between them. Through a counseling process the child eventually understands himself better and makes plans for his future. It is the counseling process which personalizes guidance so that past experiences can be expressed willingly by the subject and he can become more aware of his problems. By clearly recognizing his particular difficulties, he is helped to solve them. That the reverse of this process occurs, namely, that the experiences of the counselor are transferred to the pupil, is questioned by some experts and is exemplified by

the controversy of directive versus nondirective counseling discussed in a subsequent chapter.

STEPS TOWARD UNDERSTANDING AND GUIDING THE CHILD

The problems of diagnosis and treatment in the guidance process are so complex and delicate that many of them should be referred to the specially trained counselor, the psychologist, or the psychiatrist. Nevertheless, the burden of the guidance process is left with the classroom teacher, even though she be aided in extreme cases of deviation by the specialist. Plans for teaching are made as a result of the teacher's continuous diagnosis and evaluation of pupil progress. Even if teaching were confined to the narrow concept of conveying subject matter, guidance cannot be considered as a process separate from the teaching process, because the whole child is involved in the learning of anything. The following steps for understanding and guiding the child, then, may be used with various degrees of expertness and success by the classroom teacher, the special counselor, the school psychologist, the psychiatrist, or any other specialist:

1. Collection of pertinent data relating to the child.
2. Making a picture of the child by classifying the evidence; e.g., arranging the facts and placing them in a frame of reference.
3. Checking the accuracy of the data.
4. Giving meaning to the facts.
 - a. Synthesis and diagnosis.
 - b. Presence or absence of problems.
 - c. Designating the important and unimportant.
 - d. Finding problems requiring more data.
 - e. Formulating hypotheses of cause and effect. (Use discovered facts of childhood; e.g., how children grow and develop.)
 - f. Checking hypotheses against framework of explanatory principles.
5. Planning the initiation of treatment—therapy.
6. Experimentation with plans for treatment.
7. Evaluating progress and replanning further treatment.

Collection of Pertinent Data Relating to the Child

In the preceding chapters we have given attention to the collection of data. The mere collection of data, however, is of little value until it is interpreted and used. We should note particularly that in her process of collecting data every teacher will understand her pupil better as a result of the experience of discovering things about him. It is difficult for the teacher to collect data without making interpretation, incidental though it may be. She will form certain hypotheses concerning her pupil's behavior, what he needs to make him happier and better accepted by his peers, and how he should be treated in the schoolroom. As is frequently the case, however, even after the collection of data has been made, the conclusions reached will be governed by philosophy of education and by ability to apply principles of psychology and pedagogy, by emotional identification based upon sympathy, or by pseudoscientific attempts manifest by too much weight for one or two facts to the exclusion of facts not yet discovered.

In the next four chapters we shall, therefore, concentrate on what many educators consider the matrix of the guidance program; the diagnosis and treatment of childhood problems. We shall assume that the reader has a fair knowledge of the various general methods which have been used in collecting data about the child, and shall now continue immediately with procedures for using the data obtained.

Making a Picture of the Child by Classifying Evidence

Too often teachers, in fact entire school systems, have devoted hours of valuable time to collecting test data, anecdotal records, data from questionnaires, rating scales, and so on, only to store them unorganized and unused in the principal's office. Many a well-intentioned principal has given up the anecdotal-record system because his office has become so filled with anecdotes that there is scarcely room for a desk and chairs. Without a defined minimum of facts presented in an organized and meaningful fashion, diagnosis and treatment will be impossible. The collection of facts alone has never improved the happiness and progress

of any pupil or class. Essential to the diagnosis and treatment of a problem is the classification of the evidence to give a complete picture of the child. The most convenient frame of reference in which the array of data can be placed is the case-study outline.

We shall proceed with a detailed account of the arrangement of data in general terms. But first, the reader should be reminded that there is no agreement about the organization of a case-study outline or the quantity of data to be included. The ultimate test is whether the assembled data are meaningful and patterned for the pupil in question. The principal purpose is to reduce, classify, and arrange an array of evidence so that its significance can be readily grasped.

The Case-Study Method of Understanding Children

Much misunderstanding among teachers, counselors, and psychiatrists could be avoided if more effort were made to standardize terms. The explanation given by Anderson (1) is significant for discussion here. A case study may mean one of three things, depending upon the method used: the case history, the clinical method, or the personality-study method. The case history refers to a collection of facts from official records, the pupil's own story, the accounts of relatives, teachers, and others who have had contact with him. It would also include the results of tests, examinations, interviews, anecdotes, and products of work. The clinical method refers to the description of a pathological or abnormal case and consists of notes on the progress of the particular abnormality, sometimes supplemented by objective data of various sorts. The personality study is a record of a particular child who is somewhat unusual, but whose difficulties do not require the aid of a clinical psychologist. Features of both the case-history and clinical techniques are used. In a personality study, notes are collected for the period of time when the child was developing, with special reference to unusualness, social difficulty, or general difficulty of adjustment. The method starts with the present condition of the child and works backward, involving a bewildering complexity of factors from which a

selection of relative importance emerges. It is unusual to find even the most qualified and experienced workers deriving an identical result and analysis.

Of these three methods the teacher is concerned principally with the case history. The data are assembled in a form which makes analysis and succeeding remedial work possible. When the data are collected and analyzed it is much easier to determine whether the case is one to be handled exclusively by a clinician, or whether it is one which can be helped by the teacher with the aid of specialists when they are available. In any situation the case-study outline will help the teacher to determine what to do and how to do it, since it will assist her to collect and organize data for the purpose of fostering a better adjustment of the pupil under investigation.

In a case study all the available data about the pupil are gathered and organized in an effort to discover and remove the difficulties causing troubles. The case history presents the story of the pupil in as complete and objective a form as possible, but does not necessarily bring into focus the information on a particular difficulty. At the moment diagnosis and therapy begin there is also initiated a clinical or personality-study method. There is no exact or rigid way of making a case study, and for the average teacher there will be many subjective statements integrated with the objective information. Case studies should not end with the collection of data or with the diagnosis; rather there must be some attempt at treatment, the results of which become part of the case study itself. The case study is designed to give a complete picture of the pupil so that a particular difficulty can be interpreted against the background of his whole personality.

STEPS IN MAKING A CASE STUDY. 1. Determine the presence of a problem, primarily through observation. Of the techniques of observation, the anecdotal procedure is one of the most useful, providing conclusions are not reached too quickly on the basis of anecdotes alone. The anecdotes should be supported by test results (from the pupil's cumulative folder), by interviews, by rating scales, by all other data possible. Because most of these

data should be available from the cumulative record, the first step of the investigation should be concerned with the pupil's cumulative-record card.

2. Interview those who have had contact with the pupil.

3. Interview the pupil himself. The case study will always involve one or several interviews with the pupil. The data collected from these interviews will be supplemented by additional tests.

4. The data collected should be assembled in written form. Recording the data in this manner tends to clarify the thinking about the pupil before treatment begins. The record, of course, continues and is modified according to the success or failure of the treatment given.

The following criteria are useful for the beginning case worker:

1. The problem should be stated clearly.
2. The case study method should be characterized by its comprehensiveness or thorough analysis of all relevant facts.
3. The data must be developmental as well as cross sectional in character.
4. The onset of the problem must be determined.
5. A clear differentiation must be made between symptoms and causes.
6. The data must be carefully organized for synthesis and interpretation.
7. Insight must be employed in analyzing the data.
8. The case history, analysis, and therapy must be based upon, and substantiated by, the data (23:182).

OUTLINE FOR CASE STUDIES. There is no standard outline for organizing the data in a case study. Teachers, psychologists, counselors, social workers, or psychiatrists will use outlines according to the nature of the case and personal preferences. Allport suggests that "successful case studies seem naturally to fall into three sections: (a) a description of the present status, (b) an account of past influences and successive stages of development, and (c) an indication of future trends" (2:394). When the topics are arranged in this manner we have:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Future</i>
1. Problem	History of problem	Educational plans
2. Educational status	Educational history	Prediction of ultimate level
3. Intellectual status	Intellectual development	Prediction of future health
4. Health and physical status	Health and physical history	
5. Maturity level	Developmental history	
6. Personality	Personality development	
7. Social relations	Social history	
8. Vocation	Vocational history	Vocational
9. Family relationships	Family history (including home and neighborhood)	plans

The following outline suggests specific items in the above areas:

Identifying Data: Name, address, sex, school, grade, nationality, color, and religion. Brief description of physical appearance and a short sketch of his personality.

The Problem: Even though the original problem is modified or even eliminated with the progress of analysis and diagnosis, such a problem should be clearly stated as the guidance worker sees it. The absence of problems and the possible problems on which the data are available must also be clear. The general statement is made easier if a tentative classification such as the following is used:

1. Educational problems; e.g., mental deficiencies such as feeble-mindedness or disabilities in the school subjects. Superiority is also a problem to some pupils.
2. Family problems; e.g., finance, family relationships, socioeconomic status, neighborhood, tenure, and so on.
3. Physical and health problems; e.g., neurological and physical disabilities and sensory defects or speech defects.
4. Personal-emotional problems; e.g., conduct problems, juvenile delinquency, general personality, psychoneurosis, and psychosis.

The reader will note that there is an overlapping of all of these problems, and to state the problem within one category does not automatically eliminate the rest. The statement of the problem merely presents what the guidance worker thinks may be the problem. In some situations the problem may be stated more appropriately after the analysis and diagnosis have been made. The use of a classification such as the one presented is evident when the classroom teacher is deciding on the need of referring the case immediately to a specialist. Some problems are so evident in their seriousness, even after a few observations, that referrals must be made immediately. To be specific, the classroom teacher could not attempt diagnosis or treatment of the psychoneurotic or psychotic individual. Likewise, she alone could not deal with such problems as juvenile delinquency, feeble-mindedness, or neurological and physical disabilities. Other problems range from slight to extremely serious ones. The normal and slightly below normal can be helped by the teacher. Even if the help and advice of specialists is available, most of the work will still have to be done by the teacher. •

Education: Age at school entrance, other schools attended. Results of achievement tests, attitude toward school, teachers, and classmates. Is he ignored, popular, or resented? What are his hobbies, interests? Results of past achievement in the form of test results, grades, or reports from teachers. Results of achievement and diagnostic tests in such subjects as reading, arithmetic, speech disabilities, and so on.

Intellectual Status: Results of group and individual intelligence tests; e.g., Stanford Revision of the Binet, or the Wechsler-Bellevue. How did he respond to such tests? Special aptitudes; e.g., music, art, physical sports, communication arts, and so on.

Health and Physical Condition: Results of most recent examination. Any physical defects, speech defects, nutritional deficiency? How does he compare with his mates in size, strength, skill in games and sports? What is his attitude toward health and his body? What is the record of all illnesses?

Development: Is present level of maturity normal? Pregnancy normal? Age teeth occurred? Age of walking, saying his first word, bowel and bladder training?

Personality: Description of present personality. Any outbursts of rage, fears? Is he aggressive, submissive, shy, or bold? Does he appear happy or unhappy? Any strong likes or dislikes? Describe fantasies, unfilled wishes, ambitions. Attitude toward himself, his abilities, his accomplishments? What factors cause a change in personality? What people are and have been most influential? Response to success and failure?

Social Adjustment: Does he have few or many friends? Attitude of peers toward him? Social groups preferred? How did he adjust himself to other children when younger? Did he have companions? What were their ages?

Family (37): Description of the family culture patterns. Socio-economic level? Personality of parents? Parents' health, religion, educational level, vocational adjustment, nature of social life, and interests.

Developmental History of the Pupil's Family Life: Mother-child contacts, father-child contacts, intersibling contacts, other household members, playmates, companions, friends, enemies. Relations to neighbors and community, early school contacts. Reactions to fundamental training, dependency functions, sense of emotional security, inferiority feelings, fantasy life, growth of self-confidence, rise of conscience, fundamental interests and aims, development of appropriate social roles. Emerging status or prestige value in relation to groups and individuals. Degree of satisfaction or happiness in the early years (33:266-282).

One of the most difficult skills in classifying evidence is to condense the data while maintaining the essential picture. In case of doubt it is much better at the initial phase of the study to be too lengthy rather than too brief. There are three general forms of writing meaningful case notes: (1) the one-phrase or one-line digest, (2) the photographic reproduction, and (3) attempts at selection and interpretation. It is well to remember the characteristics of good case notes, such as accuracy, brevity, relevancy, ease of reference, and uniformity.

EXAMPLE OF A CASE STUDY. At the risk of having it accepted as a model, the writer presents the following illustration. The study represents the first attempt of a teacher to make a detailed study of a pupil. It is, therefore, typical of the studies made by

amateurs and contains many subjective statements and conclusions unsupported by evidence. Nevertheless, with its numerous weaknesses, it illustrates how a typical, relatively inexperienced classroom teacher can obtain a general picture of her pupil, obtainable in no other way. The teacher's understanding of his difficulties and problems may help the pupil make a quicker and more satisfactory adjustment.

THE CASE OF KENNETH

This is a study of Kenneth A., a member of my fifth-grade class. Lark School. I chose Kenneth as the subject for my case study because he seems like a very unhappy fellow, and I want to know more about him and what seems to be the cause of all his apparent anxiety. He does excellent work in his academic endeavor, and if a person weren't watching him closely he would hardly know that Kenneth was in his classroom. He is very quiet, gets his work rapidly, causes no trouble, asks no questions, and laughs very little. In fact, his behavior is just too good to be normal.

Let us look more closely into his life. His full name is Kenneth Lask A., age 11 years and 4 months. He is a resident of Lark and attends the fifth grade at Lark School. His mother and father are both of British descent, and Kenneth's complexion is white. He is not a frail-looking fellow, but is a bit thin. His height and weight are quite normal for his age, and he is a fine-looking boy with straight, white teeth and blue eyes. He has not suffered from any serious diseases and has been absent from school only three days during the year. His health seems to be excellent.

The Problem: I am studying Kenneth because he shows definite maladjustments in his social and emotional behavior. This behavior appears and is quite obvious whenever he is put into a social situation where he must act in association with other students. He has shown definite evidence of "psychological retreat" in the form of fantasy and daydreaming. He makes no attempts to remedy his social situation. Other members of the class are, to my knowledge, quite unaware of his problem. He worries constantly about himself and is clever in concealing his troubles from his friends. Evidence of this was shown when I gave him an informal personality test, one part of which asked him to indicate certain relationships with his parents. He did not indicate that his mother had passed away.

History of the Problem: Kenneth has a naturally quiet personality

and never has shown evidence of being at all forward. Under ordinary conditions he would not be the loud and dominating type. He shows evidence of suffering from an inferiority complex concerning his physique, personality, and popularity. As a teacher, I have tried to make him more active socially by making him chairman of numerous committees and contests. In these positions he does very well. I find Kenneth is not unpopular; rather he is well liked by all of his friends. He is not resented, to my knowledge. His classmates are eager for his friendship and leadership; however, I find that he is not too anxious for this association. Nevertheless, he is afraid that he is not popular enough. He has a "delicate" personality and his feelings are easily hurt.

Education: Kenneth does superior work in all of his academic endeavor; his school ratings and marks are all excellent. He reads rapidly, his spelling is perfect, penmanship good, arithmetic excellent. All of his teachers in school have considered him a good fellow who is most cooperative and likable. His extracurricular activities consist mostly of reading. He is reluctant to associate with friends after school, but reads much and appears to be extremely lonely. He wants to belong to the group but is reluctant to participate, except when he feels he must in order to maintain status with the group. Relationship between his home and school is poor. In fact, I am almost sure that his trouble is a result of a broken home. Kenneth's mother is dead and his father is a drunkard. All of his relatives on his mother's side are dead. He has lived almost entirely for his mother, and when she passed away, all seemed to be lost for him. His father has been warned that he will lose his job if he doesn't stop the use of alcohol. All of this seems to have left Kenneth very insecure. Very few days go by that he doesn't wish for his mother. Whenever he meets problems concerning his family he resorts to daydreams again.

Future: Kenneth is, as yet, undecided as to what his future education will be, but he thinks he would like to become a mining engineer.

Intelligence: The results of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test show Kenneth to have an IQ of 115. He showed little overemotional reaction during the test situation, but the long "spread" of age levels required to complete the test often indicates some underlying emotional disturbance. No other intelligence test has been administered. At the present time Kenneth has attained the mental level of 13 years. He is likely to improve this level, providing that he is able to overcome his social maladjustment.

Health and Physical Condition: Kenneth has had no physical defects or illness. No speech defects are evident. His nutritional status seems

good. His strength and size are about average for his age, and he is skillful in games and sports. His sexual development seems normal. His attitudes toward his health and body are interesting. According to the test which I have given him, entitled "My Problems in Growing Up," Kenneth admits that he often has colds or sore throat. He indicated that he gets tired easily. (He seems somewhat hypochondriacal, or oversensitive, about his body.) He indicated also that he is too thin. This doesn't seem to be so. He is overly concerned about his health. He keeps his physical condition to himself. He never complains. He has had no serious injuries to his body. Under normal conditions Kenneth will probably reach maturity in a healthy condition.

Development: His general level of maturity is equal to that of his age group. The pregnancy was normal; however, there is some evidence of early distress during delivery on the part of the baby. He cut his first tooth at 5 months, and first walked unassisted at the age of 11 months. These developments seemed normal with no interruptions. His bowel and bladder training was completed at the age of 9 months. His eating and sleeping were normal, with gradual development of self-reliance.

Personality: Kenneth's personality is characterized by oversensitivity. He admitted in the personality tests that he loses his temper too frequently over nothing. Most important is the fact that he is easily discouraged. He is very much afraid of making mistakes, but will not admit that he is unhappy much of the time. Kenneth admits that he daydreams frequently. He professes that some people dislike him. This bothers him, and he worries about it. He admits that he has trouble in talking with people. Kenneth indicates that he is ashamed of his father's drinking and does not want his friends to become aware of this. He indicated that he has no place to entertain his friends; yet his father employs a housekeeper who cleans the home and keeps it looking nice all of the time. He seems to have underlying fears which keep him unhappy, and appears to be submissive to other people's wishes. He dislikes motion pictures and social gatherings, and seems shy. He reads to excess. His fantasies and daydreams all seem to be centered about his mother and family. He feels inferior and is modest toward his abilities and accomplishments. I believe he is much aware that he has a problem to solve; however, he is not taking positive steps to solve it. Rather, he has given up (retreat type of mechanism). He accepts his home condition but does not make the best of it. He will not accept affection from the housekeeper. His brother has accepted the present situation of the home and seems free from maladjustment.

However, this brother is three years older than Kenneth and was, therefore, better able to cope with the crisis of his mother's death and the results of their broken family.

History of Personality: Many factors have caused a change in his personality. The death of his mother has been a major factor in his apparent maladjustment. The alcoholism of the father is another. His mother was definitely his ideal. He has responded to specific failures and frustrations with maladjusted behavior since the death of his mother.

Social Adjustment: He has many friends. He gets along well with his peers. Kenneth never takes the initiative in social contacts, but his peers seem to look up to him. (Perhaps his academic achievement has helped to make him popular and valuable as a friend.) He adjusted normally to other companions in the past, when they were available. He prefers to play with children a bit younger than he.

Family: The economic and cultural level of the family is better than average, but the social standing in the community is poor (due to the father's drinking). The father has not remarried since the death of his wife. The father is good to the children except when he becomes drunk; then he disregards and neglects his family.

My First Attack in Solving the Problem: I believe that Kenneth should be helped in some way to forget the past, and become keenly interested in the present and the future through more varied and numerous activities. His father could help him if he would help himself by seeking therapy for his alcoholism. If the home activity could be planned and coordinated so that the members of the family could go places together and travel and learn to enjoy each other, so that they could appreciate each other more, I believe that Kenneth would find freedom from feelings of insecurity and the resulting feelings of anxiety.

Checking Authenticity of the Evidence

After the data have been organized it will save much time and assure better results if a careful check is made on the authenticity of the evidence. In other words, we must check the adequacy and range of the entire picture of data which we are to judge. This we can do by asking and answering a series of questions.

1. Do we have enough data? The authenticity of the picture we have of the child is determined largely by the amount of data we have about him. It is a decided temptation to "abridge" the case and go directly to treatment, hoping by chance to

avoid the danger of omitting important data. We should remember that the more phases of the personality studied, the more complete the picture.

2. Are we placing too much reliance on standardized tests? Neither the standardized techniques by themselves nor the unstandardized tests alone can provide a complete picture. Both are required. The standardized tests should be appropriate to the specific child and to a specific purpose. A group test result, for example, should be regarded with skepticism in its application to an individual case study. Any type of intelligence test is known to be less reliable when given to a kindergarten child than when given to an intermediate-grade child. We cannot be very certain of how well the requirements of validity and reliability of tests are met in each case, because these factors vary each time a test is given to any particular child. Therefore we cannot be content with numerical scores alone. Any standardized test is most valuable when directed toward the evaluation of the pupil as a whole in his social milieu. For this reason the test scores on cumulative records are extremely limited in meaning. Assuming that our present standardized tests are of sufficient validity and reliability, there are not enough of them available to measure all the behaviorisms of the pupil.

3. Do we have bodies of data which contradict each other? We must examine our entire body of evidence to discover contradictions. In cases of such contradiction, further observation or standardized testing is necessary. Inconsistency of behavior, however, is significant in itself. Further observation may verify such inconsistency.

Giving Meaning to the Data: Diagnosis and Analysis

When a teacher initiates a plan of collecting data about a child, she has already made a beginning at not only diagnosis but treatment as well. Practically, we cannot draw a precise border line between diagnostic and therapeutic procedures. Treatment begins gradually as the teacher becomes better acquainted with the child and as she gains insight into his whole life situation. As more information is obtained the teacher must readjust her original impressions and conclusions; in actual practice the

diagnosis and experimental treatment never come to an end completely.

Diagnosis cannot be separated from the objectives of education. We must have in mind the kind of child we should like the pupil to be when he has finished the elementary school. We must define the child's behavior and evaluate it in terms of what we as educators would like that behavior to be. While we are collecting data our observation, direct as in administering a standardized test, or indirect as in using a rating scale, is determined by a certain type of behavior. When we interpret, analyze, and evaluate data, we are comparing the descriptions of behavior with behavior which indicates that objectives are being accomplished. When the behavior observed does not compare favorably with the behavior desired, we have a problem or problems. Diagnosis, then, involves the interpretation of data in terms of problems to be prevented, remedied, or alleviated. It represents an attempt to search for and to find patterns of behavior which are a part of the larger pattern of personality.

When we have an array of data all properly classified within a frame of reference, such as the completed case-study outline, it is helpful to have a classification of possible problem areas. Williamson (35), for example, has suggested five categories of problems confronted by the adolescent and adult. They are summarized as follows:

1. Personality problems: (a) difficulties in social groups, (b) speech defects, (c) family conflicts, (d) problems of discipline.
2. Educational problems: (a) insufficient scholastic aptitude, (b) ineffective study habits, (c) reading disabilities, (d) insufficient scholastic motivation, (e) over- or underachievement, (f) adjustment of superior students.
3. Vocational problems: (a) uncertain occupational choice, (b) no vocational choice.
4. Financial problems: (a) need of self-support.
5. Health problems: (a) adjustment to health and physical disabilities.

The guidance worker in the elementary school finds three of these categories useful: personality problems, educational prob-

lems, and health problems. In an attempt to overcome the difficulty of using these categories as separate areas because of their overlapping, Bordin offered another classification which the elementary-school guidance worker may find useful. Diagnosis is made in an attempt to answer three important questions:

1. Why cannot this individual work this thing out himself?
2. What is stopping him from being able to find a satisfactory solution?
3. How is he different from his fellow students who appear to be facing the same problems and working them out successfully for themselves? (5:176)

Five problems with suggested treatment are then proposed:

1. Dependence: (a) dependent upon parents, (b) resists accepting responsibility.
Treatment: (a) aid the student to gain insight and to obtain experience that will enable him to work out his own problems, (b) the counselor should not continue to solve problems for him.
2. Lack of information: (a) experience has not prepared the student for current situations, e.g., he is unaware of appropriate social behavior for certain social situations. This causes him to feel insecure and ineffective in attempting to achieve social goals.
Treatment: (a) it is usually sufficient to provide reference to books or to other individuals.
3. Self-conflict: (a) achievement does not reach level of aspiration.
Treatment: (a) nondirective counseling.
4. Choice-anxiety: (a) the only possible choices are unpleasant because life-plans are disrupted.
Treatment: (a) must learn to accept the fact of reality.
5. No problem: (a) merely wishes to verify own decision or will readily make another when evidence is presented (5:176).

Torgerson presents an excellent class summary of behavior symptoms and disabilities under the following headings (these headings have been further analyzed into subheadings):

- | | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. <i>Scholarship</i> | 2. <i>Reading</i> | 3. <i>Spelling</i> |
| work habits | sight-vocabulary | additions |
| study skills | word analysis | omissions |
| speaking vocabulary | meaning vocabulary | substitutions |
| achievement | comprehension | transpositions |
| | rate | |

- | | | |
|--|--|---|
| 4. <i>Arithmetic</i>
skills
fractions
decimals
percentages
written problems | 5. <i>Vision</i>
acuity F.P.
acuity N.P.
discomfort | 6. <i>Hearing</i>
acuity
ear trouble |
| 7. <i>Health</i>
physical development
health handicaps
disease | 8. <i>Social behavior</i>
aggressive
recessive | 9. <i>Speech</i>
vocal
articulatory
rhythmic
linguistic (32:52) |

Louttit suggests an outline grouping of the more frequently appearing problems which can be used as a guide in identifying recurring situations and patterns of behavior:

I. Conduct problems (direct primary behavior problems).

A. Limited social significance.

1. Feeding difficulties: excessive appetite, poor appetite, faulty and careless table manners, refusing to eat, refusing to feed self, gulping food, dawdling over food, food whims and fussiness, perverted appetite (pica), gagging and vomiting, swallowing air (aerophagia), regurgitation.
2. Elimination problems: enuresis, soiling (encopresis), constipation, diarrhea.
3. Sleep disturbances: insomnia, restless sleep, nightmares and frightening dreams, talking in sleep, sleepwalking (somnambulism), irregular sleep habits, inversion of the natural order of sleeping and waking, grinding teeth, drowsiness.
4. Sex problems: masturbation, sex apprehension, excessive modesty, excessive sex curiosity, heterosexual interests and activities, fetishism, homosexual activities, other sex delinquencies or offenses.
5. Nervous habits: manipulation of the body, thumbsucking, nose-picking, putting things in mouth, nailbiting.
6. Temper tantrums: breath-holding, over-inquisitive, eccentric behavior, temperamental, disobedient, stubborn, impudent, incompatibility with parents and siblings, nervous, excitable, overactive and irritable, irresponsible, careless, untidy.
7. Companionship problems: few or no companions, difficulty in making friends, undesirable companions, irregular age choice, irregular sex choice, unpopular, non-coöperative, poor

sport, play difficulties, refuses to play, plays poorly with other children, yields too easily to other children's persecution or teasing.

B. Associated with home, school, and neighborhood.

1. Lying.
2. Swearing, vulgar, obscene.
3. Fighting.
4. Destructive.
5. Incurable (late hours, etc.).
6. Bullying, teasing, cruelty.

C. Serious social significance (delinquency).

1. Stealing.
2. Truancy.
3. Sex delinquency.
4. Begging and vagrancy.
5. Injury to persons—threats to harm or kill, and actual injury or murder.
6. Arson.
7. Suicide and attempted suicide.

D. Speech problems.

II. Personality problems (indirect primary behavior problems).

A. Actively aggressive in mild or severe degree. N.B. These might include all forms of behavior listed under I., conduct problems.

B. Submissive, withdrawing behavior.

1. Mild degree, making adequate adjustment difficult.
 - a. Inferiority, lack of confidence: seclusive, bashful, shy, withdrawing, reticent, hypersensitive, self-conscious, dependent, easily discouraged, insecure, self-accusatory.
 - b. Self-centered: boasting, dominating, egotistical, showoff, conceited.
 - c. Jealousy.
 - d. Fear, cowardice, anxiety, and constant worry.
 - e. Daydreaming, absent-mindedness.
 - f. Negative to others: rejects affection, ungrateful, shirks duty, sly, secretive.
 - g. Suspicious paranoid, feels slighted or persecuted.
 - h. Listless, apathetic, lazy, lacks concentration and ambition.
2. Severe degree, making adequate adjustment very difficult or impossible.
 - a. Psychoneuroses:
 - i. Hysteria.

- ii. Psychasthenia.
- iii. Neurasthenia.
- b. Psychoses:
 - i. Dementia praecox.
 - ii. Manic-depressive.
 - iii. With somatic basis (17:257).

The lists of problems presented above will be helpful to the guidance worker in aiding him to recognize the presence of problems, the absence of problems, and problems for which no data are available. Most important of all, they will help him to identify recurring patterns of behavior. Anecdotes and other information can be arranged under topics selected from the outlines so that some estimate can be made of how frequently a particular behavior occurs. Eventually, relationships between events, as well as a general continuity of preoccupation and interests, will gradually unfold. Immediately evident, too, will be the areas about which the information is inadequate, and items which may serve as clues for further investigation. After all the facts have been arranged, it is wise for the guidance worker to study the array of evidence in an attempt to find significant unique events, such as death of the father or mother, a severe illness, or failure to be promoted. These are properly classified as traumatic experiences which may redirect the course of an entire life.

Formulating Hypotheses of Cause and Effect

Causation is multiple in the field of behavior; likewise, behavioral problems do not emerge in single categories as the preceding outline of steps might imply. Any specific maladjustment carries with it a degree of general maladjustment. It follows, therefore, that when a specific maladjustment is corrected, there results an improvement in the entire personality. We may use, for example, the concomitant occurrence of a reading disability with a general breakdown of the emotional aspects of the personality. In such a situation it is difficult to determine which is the cause and which the effect.

In all personality maladjustments the degree of the difficulty can be determined only by comparing present behavior with the

average past behavior of the child himself, or by comparing the child's behavior with that of other children. Having collected and organized a body of data about a child, we can compare these facts with statistically determined norms or with certain known facts about the growth and development of children. The whole field of guidance is made even more difficult because there apparently is no standard agreement on "normal" behavior. Martens (18) has given us a helpful suggestion. She states that all children really are "problem" children in that they are likely to present overt behavior difficulties which should receive attention. Overt problem behavior varies in degree from that which is close to zero to that which places a child in the ranks of juvenile delinquency.

When formulating a hypothesis of the cause of problem behavior, we should consider the basic personality needs of the child as: (1) the need for affection, (2) the need for a feeling of belongingness, (3) the need of achievement, (4) the need for independence, and (5) the need for social approval. Obviously, any existing condition which prevents these needs from being realized may cause a maladjustment.

We can next turn to the hazards of mental health such as: (1) poverty; (2) physical conditions, such as abnormal growth, malnutrition, physical injuries, and sickness; (3) family relationships, such as marital relations of parents, broken homes, parental rejection of children, overprotection, favoritism, too high parental moral standards, and sibling relationships; (4) cultural hazards, including those applying to members of religious and racial minorities; (5) school life, such as school environment, unsuitable curriculum, overcompetition, lack of recognition of individual differences, unstable administrative practice, and teacher's personality.

A second approach to the formulation of a hypothesis of cause and effect is to compare the child to what is known about the normal growth and development of childhood, for example, (1) the physical conditions, interpersonal relationships, and experiences most associated with the wholesome development of children in American society; (2) the tasks usually required of children during different phases of the growth cycle; (3) the role

of behavior in relation to past experiences, to the present situation, and to motives; (4) the normal physical growth of children; (5) the social characteristics of children of different ages; (6) the generation of motives; (7) the role of the emotions in human life.

All of the aforementioned suggestions refer to a general category. It is necessary when data permit to form a hypothesis as to which specific factors among the more general factors actually caused the behavior in question. When we recognize the necessity of obtaining a complete picture of the child, it is quite evident that the specific factors will have been drawn from more than one category of the general principles.

When a hypothesis has been formulated, it should be checked against the framework of explanatory principles in order to discover contradictory, oversimplified, or emotionally toned interpretations. It is wise to reserve judgment rather than conclude too quickly that a certain behavior has a specific cause. Teachers who have a superficial knowledge of child behavior have a tendency to oversimplify the causes by general statements, as, "He is merely trying to attract attention," or "He has a low IQ," or "We cannot expect more from a child who comes from a home like that." These mistakes can frequently be avoided by checking the hypotheses against a system of scientific principles (28).

Planning the Attack: What Can Be Done for the Child with a Problem?

Having found the problem and having made hypotheses concerning the cause or causes, the teacher has already progressed toward accomplishment. Nevertheless, we shall be more specific in the next several pages in discussing some of the methods acceptable to the classroom teacher, and excluding, of course, the more intensive methods used by psychiatrists and other specialists.

One of the major instruments used for treatment is the interview. The rapport established between the guidance worker and the pupil leads to a combined testing and treatment procedure in which both the interviewer and the interviewee learn more about each other; as a result of this common understanding, a vital step is made toward the treatment. Sometimes the treatment

is in the form of a certain catharsis leading to a "release of tension" for the interviewee, which in turn leads to insight and plans for future behavior. At other times the interview may merely serve as a bridge between a current crisis and a referral to an outside agency.

The treatment of children involves the treatment of parents, and once again we find the interview a most important instrument. An interview with mother and child together provides insight into mother-child relationships such as overdependence, insecurity, rejection, and so on. By use of the interview the teacher can often help both parent and child to see themselves more clearly and to make a more intelligent choice as to the direction they wish to take in accord with their most significant goals.

Only in comparatively recent years has adequate attention been given to the psychology of the interviewing process. As one of the leaders in the field, Rogers has brought into focus some of the important issues of the use of the interview as a therapeutic process. His point of view is expressed in emphasizing that the treatment is a learning process determined by the individual's drive for growth, maturity, and adjustment (30).

The basic principle which represents the core of all therapy with children and their parents is that we can help individuals only by promoting growth. We are increasing our reliance upon the individual drive toward growth and maturity and adjustment. The aim of therapy is not to change the individual in ways which we approve, but to release the normal process of growth. More and more frequently we find this view expressed regarding therapy; it is aimed toward more independent, more responsible growth on the part of the client, that it is a way of helping the individual to help himself. Such a viewpoint is built on the conviction that the resources of the individual for change and adjustment are far greater than the puny influences which we can provide. Our work becomes that of releasing constructive forces already present rather than the often hopeless task of marshaling pressures which will bring about change (30).

According to this point of view, treatment is the process of releasing pent-up feelings, followed by self-understanding and

insight, thus leading to the choice of more appropriate goals and self-initiated redirection. This theory is opposed to the more direct authoritative type of treatment which resorts to outside pressure rather than self-direction. These opposing points of view are significant enough to warrant a more detailed consideration.

The Case-Conference Method

The case conference consists in a gathering of all those people who are concerned with the child for the purpose of presenting data, forming hypotheses for causes of behavior, and making plans for treatment. The group membership may include the pupil himself when appropriate, the parents, the teachers and principal, as well as specialists. The utilization of resource persons who have pertinent data about the child has the advantage of obtaining a variety of professional reactions and suggestions as to ways of assisting the child.

The case conference is illustrated well in the work of Daniel Prescott described in his book, *The Child in the Educative Process* (28:10). Small groups of teachers gather together in their own schools to assemble information about some pupil. The group discussions which center on one child demonstrate the "extraordinary complexity of the teacher's task . . . and [demonstrate] the sensitiveness of the educative process to such matters as interpersonal relationships, mood and climate of the classroom, timing of disciplinary action, concept of self of individual children, and the management of emotional tensions" (28:10). Essential to the success of the case conference is an organized pattern of knowledge integrated into an explanatory system which can be used for analyzing and understanding an individual child.

It has been emphasized before that collection of data in itself will make the teacher more understanding of the child, thereby making her more intelligently responsive to the child's needs. Treatment will invariably result in the collection and interpretation of more data. In planning guidance procedures we must consider what changes in conditions and relationships and what new experiences would be most helpful to the pupil in assisting

him to make a healthy adjustment to his life situation. Before listing the possible methods by which a child may be assisted the writer would like to emphasize once more the necessity of integrating all methods. No one method alone is likely to bring permanent and desirable results.

The ways an individual child might be assisted are counseling (the pupil-teacher conference or parent-teacher conference), adjustment of the environment, and psychotherapy (individual or group). In the succeeding chapter we shall discuss counseling and one form of adjusting the environment; that is, guiding the child in curriculum areas. In Chapter 7, under group procedures in guidance, we shall continue a discussion of changing the environment as this problem is related to the school and finish with a discussion of therapeutic procedures.

SUMMARY

Individual and group methods of guidance are both important, and they have their particular advantages and disadvantages. Under "special conditions" an individual will express feelings in the presence of a group which he will never express when alone in the private office with a counselor. Children having common problems, for example, have more security in expression if they know they will be heard by a supporting and sympathetic audience. Even in group-guidance procedures, however, the individual should still be the center of attention. Individual guidance, just as individual instruction, is significant in the guidance program.

Individual guidance is possible only when the child is thoroughly understood. Steps toward understanding the child may be briefly classified as (1) collection of data relating to the child; (2) providing a picture of the child by classifying the evidence; (3) checking the truth of the data; (4) giving meaning to the facts through synthesis and diagnosis, through formulating hypotheses of cause and effect, and through checking hypotheses against the criteria of explanatory principles. These steps are followed by planning the attack, experimenting with plans for treatment, and evaluating progress and replanning further treatment.

Guidance involves the formulating of desirable objectives, studying pupils' behavior to determine the degree of accomplishment of these objectives, studying the causes of lack of normal progress, and using these causes as a basis of future plans and teaching. Guidance of the individual requires continuous experimentation, evaluation, planning, and replanning. The outcomes of individual guidance can be seen only as the development of the whole child is considered. Continuous evaluation of progress is necessary because the treatment used may result in new behavior, and the early hypothesis may have to be completely revised, or the subject may return to old habits unless carefully supervised.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. What are the differences between "guiding the individual" and "guiding the group"?
2. When an individual is guided by means of the group, would you describe the situation as "individual guidance" or "group guidance"? Why?
3. List the steps in understanding the child. Illustrate each step with an example.
4. Can a problem be stated before the process of guidance has been initiated?
5. Give two concrete examples of "formulating hypotheses of cause and effect."
6. What are the arguments for and against the attempts of the classroom teacher to apply therapeutic measures to personality maladjustment? Of the counselor?
7. From the various case study outlines presented in this chapter, arrange the topics into an outline of your own.
8. Of the steps in a case study the formulation of a problem is occasionally made last. How can this be justified?
9. What is the meaning of the phrase "developmental history"?
10. How can one tell that evidence has been sufficiently authenticated?

CHAPTER 7

Guidance as a Learning Process

THE CHILD CHANGES HIS BEHAVIOR AS A RESULT OF LEARNING

Relation of Guidance to the Curriculum

We may think of learning as a form of change in motor skill, emotional reaction, pattern of thinking, or interests. Learning is manifest in every sphere of behavior, representing growth from a simple to a more complex state of affairs. It occurs as a result of experience. A total of all the experiences arising from the school situation which result in learning may be referred to as the curriculum. Education is concerned with providing and controlling these experiences in such a way that full development of the individual in terms of his needs and his capacities will be assured. This, too, is the concern of guidance and teaching. The teacher uses guidance techniques in all of her work with children because the youngsters she teaches are too immature to evaluate goals in terms of future personal needs and needs of society. Any control she uses, however, will be in terms of a broad, general framework, leaving as much as possible of the planning of the details to the pupils. Accepting this explanation, we may think of education and guidance as meaning the same

thing. Likewise, we may consider guidance and teaching as being synonymous terms. Any argument presented to distinguish their difference will lead to superfluous speculation into semantics.

After reading the preceding chapters, one should be well aware of the importance of considering the complete personality of the child if we are to have a healthy, normal, well-balanced human being. Growth in the direction of this ideal requires experiences based on more than the limited academic, subject-organized course of study. Continuous growth of the child's mental, social, physical, and emotional phases of personality requires varied and direct (rather than limited and indirect) experiences. These experiences should be closely associated with the analysis of the learning process.

It is convenient to describe learning in terms of conditions and stages of the process. There must, for example, be present an urge for action because of a tension within the organism. The urge may be thought of as motivation, always within the learner, and the tension results because of a barrier which keeps the organism from attaining a goal. Motivation, goal, barrier, tension, release of tension—these factors are present in a learning situation. Release of tension occurs when the organism has attained the goal or a substitute goal. In attaining the goal, some type of action occurs which results in the elimination of unnecessary movements. The line of behavior finally bringing success is usually refined by further elimination of unnecessary action. This is part of the process of maintaining the successful act. We have given here one description only of a learning situation in operational terms usable in teaching; this is not to rule out other descriptions.

Let us examine in more detail some of these stages in the learning process as they apply to the curriculum and guidance. In the first place, a guidance worker considers the basic human needs requiring satisfaction, such as desire for affection, recognition, security, new experience, and so on, which have been referred to previously. In addition to these more or less universal needs or drives, every pupil develops his own personal ones. These needs of the child are the focus of attention when the broad pattern of goals is being planned in the curriculum. Guidance

is required to help the child successfully modify these needs and their satisfaction according to the folkways, mores, and institutions of his society. Motivation is complex; nevertheless, it is the factor which directs behavior toward the goal. Guidance can do much in making the effort purposeful and direct.

COUNSELING AS A LEARNING PROCESS

"Counseling is a mutual learning process involving two individuals in an educational environment, one who is seeking help from a professionally trained person, and the other, who by reason of his breadth of training and background, utilizes many adjustment techniques and methods in assisting the individual to orient and direct himself toward a goal leading to maximum growth and development in a social and democratic society" (43:313). This definition does not deny the possibility of group counseling because the ultimate effect on the individual may be the same as in an individual face-to-face situation.

The writer includes pupil conferences or parent-teacher conferences as a form of counseling. Pupil-conferences are generally brief in duration, whether scheduled or unscheduled. They may be in the form of casual conversations, in or out of class; the short chat before or after school; or the playground or neighborhood conversation. A more intricate form of conference may be referred to as "clinical counseling"; here the pupil receives assistance in a counselor's office.

Representing a scientific approach to counseling Williamson stated that, "to me, the counselor may be thought of as a special kind of teacher, with primary concern for the individual's personality development, normal and deviate as well" (45:151). Rogers "has confidence in the fact that, in this atmosphere which he (the counselor) has helped to create, a type of learning takes place which is personally meaningful and which feeds the total self-development of the individual as well as improves his acquaintance with a given field of knowledge" (29:427).

Although there is apparent agreement by these two authorities that counseling is a learning process, they have generally been identified with the controversy between directive and nondirective

tive counseling. Because the differences between the directive versus the nondirective approach to counseling have been so clearly brought into a focus by Rogers (28), we shall follow his explanations somewhat closely. In a directive form of counseling the counselor tactfully takes the full direction of the contact. The pupil knows that the counselor has information to guide him, and from the problems confronting the pupil only some will be selected. The counselor assumes full and direct leadership during the conference interview and will therefore ask most of the questions. The problem is defined for the pupil. The focus of the counseling process is on the problem, its diagnosis, its causes, and its treatment, and the only responsibility of the pupil is to coöperate. Such a philosophy of counseling may be criticized on several counts: first, there is no assurance that the problems selected by the counselor are pertinent; second, the whole process of having someone else diagnose, suggest, and treat the problems tends to relieve the pupil of solving the difficulties himself; and third, although there is need of rapport, complete freedom to express all types of feelings and attitudes is lacking because the direction which the counselor gives tends to inhibit expression except in the prescribed areas.

The basic essential of a nondirective counseling procedure is that the pupil has sufficient capacity within himself for adequate growth and development. There is present enough motivation to achieve the kind of growth and development which he feels is desirable for himself. The counselor has a respect for the way in which the pupil chooses to grow and develop. The effectiveness of the process depends on consistency in following the hypothesis and a deep concern for the differing nature of people; that is, differences in background, goals, and values as well as the right of each individual to make his own decisions. The nondirective form of counseling is characterized by the absence of advice, persuasion, and argument, and by the emphasis on the pupil's opportunity to talk freely. In contrast, the directive viewpoint places a high value upon social conformity and the right of the more able to direct the less able toward a preconceived standard of the correct solution. Instead of directing attention toward the problem, the nondirective viewpoint focuses on the child in

an attempt to see his life as he sees it himself. Because of this emphasis the method is sometimes described as client-centered.

The reader no doubt has recognized the suggestion in the nondirected manner of counseling a similarity to Rousseau's theory that "God makes all things good. Man interferes and they become evil." According to this theory, the growth of a child is best achieved without the imposition of social forces. Also similar to it is the psychotherapeutic approach of catharsis, in which the individual is permitted to talk out his problems, supposedly freeing himself from fears and guilt feelings of which he may be unaware and even revealing more deeply buried attitudes which also exert their influence on behavior. Today, the technique of play therapy, finger-painting, puppet shows, and psychodramatics have a relationship to the philosophy of non-directive counseling. It may be described as a *laissez-faire* procedure as contrasted to an autocratic, authoritarian point of view.

The effective counselor probably develops an eclectic attitude regarding these two opposing theories. It is neither possible nor desirable for a counselor to be strictly neutral in gesture or tone of voice. A good classroom teacher will continuously keep the broad objectives of education in her mind, and this alone should not only direct her own behavior but also the behavior of her pupils. Growth of the pupil is not the result of an "unfolding" of something within, because the child lives in a social context. Individualism is good only so far as it regards the welfare of others. When the counselor plays a passive role, the pupil may receive a release of tension through talking; his thinking may even be stimulated. Unless he has a feeling of confidence in his counselor, however, probably little progress will result. Teacher and pupil (counselor-client) plan, work, and evaluate together. This is the road to adjustment.

Before leaving the argument we should refer to the use of the nondirective technique as an excellent medium for gathering valuable data about the child. These data are to be added to the cumulative information, where they can be used by the pupil as well as his counselor. Nor should the use of these data be postponed until their effectiveness has waned. The use of these data should not conflict with Rogers' hypothesis that "effective

counseling consists of a definitely structured, permissive relationship which allows the client to gain an understanding of himself to a degree which enables him to take positive steps in the light of his new orientation" (28:18).

Traxler (40:313) summarizes counseling as learning in four areas. The first area is in learning that problems must be solved through one's own decisions. The pupil learns that a wise and well-trained counselor neither allows himself to make the counselee's problems his own nor becomes too emotionally involved. The counselor will rarely tell the pupil or parent what to do, but because of his greater knowledge and experience, he is ready and able to make suggestions.

The second area of learning is in group situations. The most frequent occasions for such learning will be in orientation, training in study habits and skills including corrective reading for individuals who are retarded in reading ability. (The writer suggests that any change occurring because of a group is learning; e.g., occasions of learning desirable human relationships, etc.)

A third area of learning for the pupil is related to an understanding of various kinds of appraisal devices. He needs to understand the results of achievement tests he has taken and even some aspects of his cumulative record as it provides a continuing picture of his growth and development.

A fourth area of learning is the understanding of self. Through counseling sessions the child can identify his own self-concept. He needs to assess his own general ability, his special aptitudes, his achievement, his interests, and his personal qualities. He learns to weigh evidence concerning himself, to reach his own decisions, and to act upon these decisions in a mature manner.

The Counseling Interview

The activities of the counselor are encompassed in the interview. The interview can be a therapeutic as well as an information-getting device. Many authorities agree that counseling is carried on primarily by means of interviews, but would give counseling a broader connotation. For example, Williamson says that both counselor and counselee participate in the following roles:

1. Definition of problem as presently understood with possible related causes.
2. Identification of associated ego involvement of self-attitudes.
3. Identification and acceptance of the integrated roles of counselor and client as a working team of learners.
4. Collection, refinement, and verification of the relevant facts.
5. Interpretation (diagnosis-distinguishing) of the relevant facts and their implications.
6. Learning new ways of adjustment with the encouragement of the counselor (45:110).

The participation in these roles would not restrict counseling to an interview situation. It appears that while the principal technique in the actual counseling process is the interview, it would be unwise to limit the process to that technique. Effective counseling can be accomplished only on a basis of adequate information, the gathering of which assists the counselor and counsellee to develop a better understanding of the significant problems. For example, a student taking an interest test may gain insight into the various vocations and activities of life. Such insight is certainly a part of counseling, yet is not part of the interviewing situation (43:321).

Counseling with the Parent

The teacher or professional counselor sooner or later finds that counseling with the parent is as necessary as counseling with the child. Parents need to understand both their children's school work and the children themselves. A chronically disturbed child will reflect not only a disturbed parental relationship but a disturbed family as well.

Among the first considerations for counseling the parent is attention to the physical setting for the counseling session. Rapport can frequently be established by taking the parent on a tour of the school plant, with special attention to the parts of the building that the child uses. Whether the interview is held in the home or school, it is desirable to have both parents present. The place for counseling should be free of interruption and convenient for the parents' attendance.

It is beneficial to predetermine the purpose of the counseling session; e.g., getting acquainted, obtaining information, giving information, or assisting in emotional adjustment.

Parents who come for counseling are usually experiencing feelings of guilt and a need to direct blame on someone or something aside from themselves. The counselor is ever sensitive to the change of feelings expressed by the parent. A good counselor will accept statements and moods as they are expressed, showing no signs of disbeliefs or questioning. He has respect for the individual's self-concept and feelings regardless of apparent triviality or magnification. Although he cannot become emotionally involved, he must show some sympathy for the parents' predicament.

The problems of parents are long-standing and cannot be solved easily. As with the child, any change of attitude will occur slowly, usually after many counseling sessions.

Treatment by Change of Environment

In contrast to the nondirective type of counseling treatment, we have the direct procedure of changing the environment within which the pupil is finding it difficult to adjust. Rarely does this kind of treatment effect a cure in itself. It is also necessary to attack the disturbing conflict by dealing with the pupil. Usually, successful therapy involves both the environment and the pupil. In the case of a boy whose family has taught him how to steal, the first attack should be on the environment itself. In certain situations where the parents are too stupid or ignorant to understand, or too reluctant to admit their inability to deal with the child, complete removal of the child from his environment may be necessary. Treatment of the parent is an indirect method of modifying the environment.

The classroom teacher should seek possible environmental changes within the school which may help. The necessity of providing an environment where the child feels adequate and secure has been frequently emphasized. This often requires a change from a competitive to a less competitive classroom society. It may require the change of a pupil from one classroom and teacher to another classroom and teacher. It has been demonstrated, for instance, that no teacher is able to work effectively with all types of children (1). One who may be efficient in dealing with extremely difficult adolescents may be nervous in dealing with

a shy 6-year-old. Another may like to work with undisciplined and uninterested children, but be entirely baffled by vague, passive, withdrawn children. Much can be accomplished to help some children through classroom grouping procedures. A boy who demonstrates continuous domination, or who has begun to lose interest and ambition, may be transferred to a group of boys more active and aggressive in nature. A bright but retiring child may be transferred to a group of slow-learning children where he will be given an opportunity to develop traits of leadership.

There are some schools which have manipulated the school environment by segregating all the children who present either behavioral or emotional disorders into adjustment classes with a special program to meet their needs. More frequently this procedure is followed when the child shows disabilities in learning the special curriculum areas of reading or arithmetic. A more common phrase for special academic adjustment is "the opportunity room." It is not uncommon to find classes organized to help the hard of hearing to learn the art of lip-reading, or the hard of seeing to learn Braille, or the stutterer to learn to speak. Such special classrooms have the dual function of considering the interests of the well-adjusted pupils who remain in the regular classroom as much as the interests of those who deviate. Special work in the home classroom by especially trained personnel who come in to help the teacher would appear to be the most satisfactory arrangement from a psychological standpoint. From an economical and practical point of view, however, this is frequently impossible.

An attempt to make a more normal social setting in terms of chronological age groupings has resulted in the special school. These special schools permit a larger population and are aimed at adjustment and guidance rather than discipline or punishment. In the best of such schools we find the most efficient, skillful, and best-trained teachers available, who have at their disposal the services of the pediatrician, nurse, psychologist, psychiatrist, social worker, and special teachers for speech or remedial reading.

We should include here, too, the various types of child clin-

ics, which may be organized as an integral part of a school system or as an adjunct for community service. Such a clinic includes the services of psychiatrist, psychologist, pediatrician, social worker, and visiting teacher, and the services of a variety of community agencies. It is to such a corrective center that the most urgent cases should be sent.

GUIDING THE CHILD IN LEARNING IN THE CURRICULUM AREAS

Guidance of learning in the curriculum areas is related specifically to learning in the subject matter of specific content fields such as communicative arts, quantitative thinking, scientific thinking, and social learning. Learning in these fields should not be considered without a recognition of the importance of the emotions and other personality factors, but diagnosis of deficiencies in learning in the content fields needs closer scrutiny than we have offered in preceding pages. The common feature of guidance in subject matter is that of a standardized sequence of thinking in terms of objectives, methods of determining the degree of achieving these objectives, the factors associated with faulty learning, techniques for locating factors interfering with successful learning, and suggestions for overcoming faults revealed by diagnosis. The scope of remedial teaching is so great that adequate discussion is impossible in this volume. The whole field of remedial instruction, however, is gradually being absorbed into the guidance field and, accordingly, deserves special attention. Two curriculum areas which loom as most significant in remedial need, namely, communicative skills and arithmetic, will be discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

Establishing Goals

Establishing goals is an essential feature of curriculum-making. Fortunately, many of the traditional goals of the curriculum are being supplemented by those of a more appropriate nature. At one time, for example, every child was expected to make specific achievements, regardless of his academic ability, physical condition, emotional stability, or social adjustment. Even now, pupils

are too frequently asked to learn isolated sets of facts and information which are apparently unrelated to significant problems. When planning the curriculum it is desirable to form a broad structure of dynamic goals which can be modified and changed with the child's increased maturity. The formulation of these goals is governed largely by the question, "What sort of person do we want the child to become?" Specific goals within the general framework should be formulated with the pupils themselves under surveillance. They must, of course, be geared to the maturity levels of the child; this requires the teacher's thorough knowledge of the different developmental phases of childhood.

Recognition of maturational patterns requires a sufficient variety of problems to meet individual differences. Experience units most frequently found within the curriculum cut across subject-matter boundaries. This makes it possible for goals to be more closely related to pupil needs. Guidance helps the pupil to define his purposes, to recognize his needs, and to reach specific goals in the safest, most efficient, and most economical manner.

The tension which results because of the barrier between the urge (motive) and the goal must neither be too great nor too mild. When the tension is too great or enduring, the entire learning situation may disintegrate, and maladjustment rather than good adjustment occur. As scientifically proved in experiments on pleasant and unpleasant effect, learning is influenced by the emotions.

Much of real learning occurs as a result of the action which ensues as an endeavor to relieve tension. Planning how to achieve the goal, for example, is an essential feature of the learning process. Let us reiterate, this planning must be shared by the pupil. When specific abilities are essential to the attainment of desired goals, the pupil learns more rapidly, providing he sees clearly the means by which the goal is attained. Learning is facilitated when the materials are meaningful and are so organized internally that relationships are easily comprehended.

We may briefly summarize at this point by saying that guidance within the curriculum requires a recognition of maturity and experience levels of the pupils, that learning activities are

determined by pupil needs and goals, that units of experience possess meaning and structure, and that pupil activities must be in terms of life situations. Because of its significance, this last requirement will receive further elaboration in the following topic.

We Learn What We Experience

In a small midwestern rural community a boy announced to the teacher and his classmates that his father had given him a little Shetland pony for his birthday. The teacher asked, "May we walk down to your home to see it?" When he gave his consent, the whole class expressed delight in the coming excursion. Before going, however, the teacher used care in the words she selected for the discussion. After returning to the schoolroom, the pupils talked about what they saw. Pictures of other Shetland ponies were shown. The teacher wrote sentences on the board as pupils dictated. Words were chosen for special study. Sentences were transferred to a chart. The pupils made illustrations, a motion picture was seen, more charts were made, more pupils learned to read the words, and so on.

We may call this episode an experience. Let us point out some of its characteristics. In the first place, the children were possessed of an urge (motive); there was a goal in sight; activity ensued. The teacher provided the basic design and direction to the kind of plans made; for example, instructions for the journey were presented, standards of excursion conduct were discussed, words were learned, and so on. Because the teacher was willing to have pupils help make the plans, they saw an association between what was being done and the goal. The earlier parts or phases of any experience stay with the pupil to give meaning and direction to later stages.

In fact, meaning is an essential element of the experience situation. It develops because of a dynamic interaction between the child and his environment. It develops because of an ongoing process in which the child observes a connection between what he is doing and what he expects to accomplish. Added to this is foresight regarding the consequences. With this definition, it may be realized that mere activity is not meaningful experience.

The teacher must guide the experiences of children so that there will be continuous growth in ability to make correct judgments; so that pupils can develop traits of kindness, generosity, integrity of thought and action, self-direction, and coöperation; and so that pupils will develop respect for others and for themselves, both of which require a sense of duty and loyalty.

By way of summary, let us review some of the relationships between experience and the nature of learning. In the first place, significant learning experiences build responsible self-direction and self-discipline. Such experiences permit and encourage children to learn to get along with other people. By learning to function as members of a democratic classroom group they are also learning the essentials of good citizenship. By learning in a social setting the child develops democratic insights and beliefs, social adequacy, and socially useful skills and knowledge. Real learning requires an integration of experiences. This occurs readily in an experience-centered curriculum because the child senses a need; evaluation of meanings and progress are part of the natural process of learning. Integration may be regarded as a reconstruction of previous experiences. It can, therefore, never be regarded as permanently established because each new experience, if it is educative, must be integrated with other experiences.

Levels of Growth Make a Difference

From the foregoing discussion we may conclude that learning occurs most readily in a stimulating environment where new experiences emerge naturally from preëxisting experiences, where the child has many opportunities for practicing those skills that he will ultimately utilize, and where the child will strive for socially desirable goals under the motivation of his internal desires. Regardless of opportunity for experience, however, the child will actually experience only those situations which his level of mental and physical development will permit. A child's level of development is a part of a continuous process of growth which is taking place in an interaction between the individual organism and its environment. To picture a segment of this development at any one time is like suddenly stopping a motion picture in order that one still picture can be viewed for a period

of time, while recognizing that the still picture is a part of the entire motion picture which has gone by, yet a part of that which is still to come.

Guidance requires a knowledge of what a child can most advantageously undertake and accomplish at a given period of his life. Recognizing a child's experiences, knowledge, and concepts at a particular stage of development will help us guide him into those learning situations in which he will be successful, satisfied, and encouraged.

Relation of the Personality of the Child and Learning

When we speak of personality we refer to the whole child. We have in mind, too, a particular system of human behavior and learning commonly known as the "field system." Our discussion of learning and guidance thus far has supported the point of view that the child is an energy system attempting to maintain a dynamic equilibrium with other energy systems. An adjustment represents a reorganization or integration of behavior in terms of the present situation. This theory of learning is opposed to an older, yet still prevalent, theory, commonly known as "associationism," which makes the child a machine who responds to stimulation from the environment. Continuous repetition of the stimulus (S) with the response (R) forms a connection or bond. This is sometimes referred to as the " S - R bond theory" of learning. Under this theory we may present a stimulus such as " 4×4 " and a response "16." The important thing here is to respond correctly with 16 every time the stimulus 4×4 is presented. Under such a theory continuous repetition of the stimulus will always bring about the same response. The field theory maintains that it is more important to know the meaning and process of 4×4 than it is to respond automatically with 16 (the product). In other words, the field theory is interested in the process, while the association theory is interested in the product. A teacher who is guided by the association theory of learning will be interested in many specific and varied objectives which are logically determined and presented. Her main concern will be to provide enough repetition to assure the establishment of a bond between the stimulus and response. A

teacher who is guided by the field theory of learning will be interested in broad general objectives. She is interested in providing many varied experiences which will result in the accomplishment of these objectives. Her attention is on the effect of these experiences on the child regardless of the logic, sequence, or organization of their presentation. This means she is interested in the emotions, the information, and the final behavior of the child as he is engaged in certain activities.

A theory of learning cannot consist of a list of rules for teachers to apply or upon a minute and detailed structure of subject matter. The ultimate result as it affects the emotions and consequent behavior is the prime consideration. As a guide, then, the teacher is not concerned so much with subject matter, with facts and items of information learned, or with a logical presentation of experience, as she is in the ultimate effect of an experience on the total personality and behavior of the child.

Guidance of Learning in the Communicative Skills

The objectives of instruction in the communicative skills are sufficiently extensive to include the entire process of communication between human beings. More specifically, they involve the interpretation of any type of communication of ideas, emotion, or attitude of a person or group to another person or group. A child who has learned to read well, for example, is able to identify and recognize printed words quickly and accurately; he can understand the meaning of the communicator; and he can make use of the meaning he derives. A pupil who enjoys reading will find that this medium will extend his experience beyond the realm of his own life and will provide a means of recreation and use of leisure time. In discovering the causes of retardation, it is necessary to analyze individual barriers in the learning process. This will frequently lead to a discovery of deficiencies in the acquisition of certain skills, and in turn, usually to disturbances of the personality.

The discovery of these deficiencies involves steps similar to those already discussed; that is, collecting facts, analyzing the facts and making hypotheses, planning the attack, evaluating the results, and replanning. For the collection of facts we may

use observation and standardized tests. Standardized tests, for example, are useful in measuring specific abilities: oral reading, silent reading, rate, comprehension, reading for specific purposes, such as determining the central thought or specific details and judging literary merit. In the case of individual guidance a child may be given one of these tests and his scores compared with those of other pupils of his chronological age. A teacher may find the ability of her pupil above average in silent reading, yet somewhat below average in oral reading. The diagnosis may then lead to explorations of the child's intellectual capacity, sensory and motor make-up, and emotional and personal traits.

The most thorough and complete method of attack on deficiencies in the communicative skills is to analyze the complete case history of a child, including results of standardized tests, family history, anecdotal records, and so on. An example of such a method, and the resulting log of progress and procedure, is presented to illustrate how one teacher used skillful guidance in her task of teaching.

CASE STUDY OF MAROLYN X¹

Data from school records:

Name: Marolyn X

Date of birth: April 29, 19—

Grade: Sixth—Lincoln School

Tests:

Pintner Intermediate, point score of 137

Stanford-Binet, Form L, administered November 18, 19—

M.A., 10-8; I.Q., 86

Observations by psychologist who gave test:

Subject responded slowly, uncertainly, incompletely, with answers trailing off unintelligibly, as though hoping every moment to satisfy so she would not be pressed further for an answer. Test required two and one-half hours. Appeared rather calm in testing, but was

¹ Courtesy of Dr. Frank Jex, Department of Educational Psychology, University of Utah.

apparently quite flustered inwardly. Watched examiner's lips and face closely, as though for encouragement (hearing disability). Necessary to descend to the seven-year level before she could read with facility, although vocabulary was on the twelve-year level. Very distrustful of her own ability and required an unusual amount of encouragement throughout.

Mutters a lot to self. Appears outwardly calm but inwardly greatly perturbed by problems. Seems very uncertain of responses. Needs unusual amount of encouragement and frequent repetition to elicit responses. Seldom gives indication she is finished. Watches my lips closely while I read. Father died in 1943 of heart attack. "I was in bed with him when it happened. It surely was terrible! Mother married again last September. She didn't want to but everyone wanted her to, so she did. I'm glad she did. He surely is perfect! Mother likes him, too." Memory for stories: enjoyed doing this very much. Derives great pleasure from responses she knows are correct. Note better grasp of social behavior than of natural forces.

From identifying information:

Step-father a banker (planning on starting own soda-water business). Mother a housewife and socially prominent. Has a sister seven years old. Mother remarried. Step-father has two children living with their mother.

Rating scale of test behavior:

She seems willing and enters actively into task. Extremely lacking in self-confidence. Constantly distrustful of own ability. She is shy, reserved, and reticent. Easily distracted by extraneous stimuli or by own ideas, but returns readily to task.

Kuder Interest Inventory:

Administered on June 10, 19—, yielding the following percentiles (based on high-school norms for girls). Scientific 75, artistic 70, social service 60, musical 45, computational 30, literary 23, clerical 10, persuasive 04.

Observations:

Necessary for examiner to read entire test to subject. Responses indicate many competing interests and lack of definite pattern. Subject's intense dislike of reading apparent throughout test.

Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale:

Administered June 12, Verbal Scale I.Q., 84. Performance Scale I.Q., 104.

Observations:

Confirmed impressions gained during Binet test. Marked reading disability and lack of verbal facility. Complete lack of assurance on verbal items quite in contrast with rather complete confidence on performance items. Good performance on digit span suggested learning ability considerably above present level of achievement. After consultation with subject's mother, it was decided to attempt a program of individual instruction during summer.

California Test of Personality (form for secondary grades):

Administered on June 15, yielding the following percentiles:

Self-reliance	35	Social standards	90
Sense of personal worth	50	Social skills	40
Sense of personal freedom	10	Antisocial tendencies	20
Feeling of belonging	70	Family relations	60
Freedom from withdrawing	15	School relations	15
Freedom from nervous symptoms	15	Community problems	35

Emotional response:

Happy: "When I got to go to Jickion Holl (Jackson's Hole) this summer. Then my counse came home from over seacs."

Unhappy: "When my father dies."

Afraid: "When I was lost in the canyon."

Angry: "When my mother would not let me go horse-backriding."

Best thing: "The best thing is to have a horse."

Worst thing:

Last year's teacher's rating (1, superior; 5, inferior):

	1	2	3	4	5
Emotional instability			X		
Feelings of inadequacy				X	
Physical defects	X				
Nervous manifestations				X	
Behavioral immaturity					X

Stanford Achievement (Form G—Grade 6):

<i>Total</i>	<i>Grade Score</i>	<i>S.I.</i>
	4.0	74
Reading	4.4	76
Language arts	3.8	78
Arithmetic	4.2	77
Spelling	3.7	72

(NOTE: Paragraph meaning 5.0 and word meaning 3.7)

Ayres Spelling Scale:

Fourth-grade level

Report of the first interview, held on June 16:

TEACHER: We have a new way of learning words. Many children have had the same difficulty, have been unable to learn by class methods, but have learned by this method.

MAROLYN: (Various responses in between my explanation) Gee. They could learn? You don't have to start reading books?

TEACHER: Is there any word you would like to learn? ("Gee, No." She became flustered) Well, then, is there anything you really like to do? Is there anything you like to hear about?

MAROLYN: You mean sports? Oh, I love horses.

TEACHER: Tell me something about them.

MAROLYN: Oh, I can't. I can't talk about things.

TEACHER: You are going on a trip where you ride horses. Aren't you?

MAROLYN: I am going to Chili Ranch.

TEACHER: Let's write a story about what you are going to do. (Marolyn waited for me to tell her what to say and do. I kept encouraging her to write just what she had done.)

MAROLYN: I can't write. This is what I don't do well. I can't spell.

TEACHER: I don't care at all. You write your story. If you come to a word you don't know tell me later what word you meant, then put a dash. (She wrote story. Had her say words out loud. Wasn't sure of pronunciation. Tried to get her to think out sentences so she would get complete thought in mind. Words were written black-board size on scratch paper with crayon.) Now let's count the words you do know. The words you don't know. We'll learn those you don't know one at a time. Trace this word with your finger, saying each part of the word as you trace it. Repeat it until you can write

it without looking at the copy. (Marolyn did this with all the words. She only had to trace it two or three times before she knew them. After each word I checked on the spelling of the previous ones learned. She made no mistakes, a fact that surprised and pleased her. I then gave her a test on the words, saying, "You now have a card file with the new words on it. [I had printed and written the words on cards and she had filed them away.] As I give you this test remember if you are not sure of the word the way I taught you, leave a blank." Without fear or error she quickly wrote the words.)

TEACHER: Here is your story typewritten. Read it for me. (Read it easily.) Now I am going to dictate the story to you. See how much you remember. You have your file here if you forget. (Wrote story without error.)

MAROLYN: (She was very pleased.) Now if I can just remember tomorrow.

TEACHER: You can always relearn, Marolyn. It won't be long before you never make a mistake on those words you didn't know. Think of a story you would like to write tomorrow.

MAROLYN: Yes, I will.

First Copy, June 16:

I am going to Ch_____ ranch.
ride horses, go swimming, hiking, over-night trips. July 22 I am
learn Jo_____ repair for the trip I went downtown to get
some cloths, I got a pair of shose, pail pushers, frontear pants.

Report on June 17:

Marolyn came twenty minutes early, and was very eager to begin. She said her uncle had had an accident, and that her mother thought it would be good thing to spend this day's lesson on a letter. I agreed with her. She wrote two sentences, making this comment on her misspelled words, "I'll just put a dash by the words I don't know." Then she couldn't think of anything to say. "I don't like to write letters because I don't know what to say." "Marolyn, you have greeted Stan, told him how sorry you are. now why don't you tell him what you are going to do this summer?" She wrote a paragraph along the same lines as the June 16 letter. When she came to the words "pedal pushers" and "preparing" she groaned, "Oh those words." "But you know them, Marolyn, and if you forget you just look them up in your card file." She wrote them without error. She couldn't think

of anything else to say, so I suggested she tell him what her family had been doing. She wrote about that. I had her say her sentences out loud before she wrote them. That crystallized her thoughts. She found if she said her words plainly she could spell them, and she wouldn't substitute another word for the proper word. On the last paragraph she became very excited over the prospective trip to the fair. I told her people like to hear how she feels about things.

When she finished her letter she moaned about her spelling. We counted the words she knew—134. Seventeen were wrong. These were written on scratch paper and on cards for her card file. She was very anxious to learn them. She had trouble with "except" and "San Francisco," but she learned the seventeen words. The hour was up, but she said she wanted to see if she knew them. I gave her a test. She had trouble with "except" and "feel." She restudied these. She learned them. I told her that that was enough for the day. She wanted to rewrite her letter to see if she could do it. She rewrote her letter without error, and was so pleased. I was amazed, too, for she wrote each word carefully and firmly. I told her then to take her letter home to her mother, rewrite it on her stationery when she had time, and to return the copy to me. I told her again how sorry I was that I had had her here longer than an hour. She said she did not care at all. She appeared very happy.

Note of errors (Inability to think of word clearly. Remedy by pronouncing audibly before writing):

the	for	to
am	for	can
his	for	this
an	for	and
fell	for	feel
o	for	hello
find	for	found

First copy, June 17:

Dear Stan,

I was so sorry to here about your as_____. I hope you get better soon. Say o_____ to Jane and patty for me.

I am preparing to go to Chili camp on July 22. I went downtown to look for clothes. I find a pair of li_____ blue pedal-pusher at the store. I like them very much.

M_____ started swimming today. She was very happy

that Mother got her in. He was sorry that his year was his last. for J_____ birthday she went to San F_____.
To see Aunt.

S_____ family and m_____ family are going to the fair Friday night. I am hardly w_____ until Friday night. We are going on every thing all except the w_____ an the hammer. Las week I went to the fair and I went on the noon roket and I fell like I still there. I wish you a very fast re-cof_____.

Love Marolyn.

Report of June 18:

Marolyn's mother called to say how thrilled M. was with the letter she took home yesterday. "See mother, I am not so dumb."

Today I reviewed the words she had learned. She was a bit nervous about it. Gave her twelve sentences, using all the twenty-five words she had learned in two days. She hesitated on two words, "shoes" and "recovery," but wrote them correctly. She missed two, "frontier," spelling it "fronter"; "except," spelling it "excpet." She relearned these four words. In the sentences given she did not know how to spell nine new words. She knew four of these. She then made up sentences including the new words. No errors.

She seemed happy and interested most of the time. She wasn't as interested as she was yesterday when she was writing her letter. I told her we wouldn't review these old words now for a week, then we would see how much she remembered. Tomorrow she is going to write about some funny experiencce. I'll typewrite her story for her to take home.

NOTE: Mother said Marolyn was enrolled into the second grade without knowing first-grade work. She just sat in second grade, unable to comprehend the work. More interested in learning words she had written and misspelled than in learning new words in sentence review I gave her. Difficulty in composing sentences. Had trouble learning given words. Mentioned hearing difficulty to mother. Said Marolyn's father had had trouble.

Report of June 19:

Marolyn wrote an excellent story today. It was about 250 words long. The thoughts came quite easily because it was about an experience she well remembered. She had trouble with connective words. She would omit writing the "and" or the article preceding the noun even

though she said it out loud. I would have her repeat her sentence; she would see her mistake quickly, saying, "I always do that."

Gave her a retest on the words she had trouble with yesterday. No errors. Gave her a test on the ten words that compose more than one fourth of the words we write. No errors. This pleased her. "There seems to be so much to learn, but you make me feel that I know a lot."

She said the reason she made such a failure in school was because the teacher would dictate all the sentences to the class for homework so rapidly that she could not write the words. "There were so many I couldn't spell," she said. "I would get all upset; I couldn't get the sentences copied down right so I never got my lessons right. The teacher gave me so much to do that I couldn't get through." Of course her interest was dead because the obstacles were like huge mountains.

I told her that by tomorrow she will have learned fifty words. She was amazed. "I surely hope I can write home good letters to my mother while I am away." We talked of a plan. She will send home a postcard every night. If she can't spell a word she will put a blank. Then when she comes back she will get all these words and we will learn them. (I found if she just quickly puts a dash, she goes on and finishes her story with interest.) M. had written about three sentences, and she stopped. "I guess that's enough. I don't know how to spell so many words." "Is that all that happened?" "Oh, no." "Just put a dash and go on with your story."

First copy:

Jackies my c_____ and I went riding out at San tan riding acad_____. We got a horse and had a good time. On the way back we were the horse, my horse stumple and it throught me off of him. I landed on the grav_____ road. A car was passing us. it stop. a man got out. he came running over to me. he ask me if I could get up. I said no. The people who lived a cross the street came running our to me. And as people drove by they would look at me in sa_____ a way it would make me feel w_____. The man who fust came to me help me to stand up. He took me back to the stables. Jackies took my horse back for me. When we got back to the stable Jackie help me in to the car. He hurried _____ me home. Mother was'e't there, M_____ said that mother was up at friend's. So Jackie took me up to her house. The Mr. of the house was doctor

and fixed me up. He fixed some of my cuts for me. I could not stand on my legs so he put me in bed at my home for three weeks. At the end of that time I could walk on them a little. it took about two mouths before I could walk ag_____.

Report of June 24:

M. came today ready to write her story. She said she had a lot to write and it would take a long time. She wrote a title without any suggestion from me. Twice she became confused and asked me to straighten her out. She didn't know how to express sequence. I asked her two or three times if she would like to stop. "Oh, no. I like to do this. It's fun." She misspelled 44 words, but she wrote over 150 words.

Report of June 27:

Learned the remaining six words of the story that she had not learned. Then she wrote the remainder of her story. She was very tired when she got through. She couldn't keep her mind on her work. She said, "I'm thinking of a million things." She stumbled over thirteen words. She read the story of *Script Girl in Flying the Printways*. Reads by words and not by groups. I supplied the words and drew a slip of paper quickly across the page. She said, "This helps me keep the place. I'm always losing it." Read smoother today than yesterday. She guesses at the word quickly without stopping to study it. She has no idea how to tackle a new word, and she hates to try. There is such a bored attitude that appears when she is asked to read.

July 1:

Marolyn said she was jealous of M_____ when she was younger, because she got all of the attention. Said that "Aunt H_____ has a girl, V_____, who is a genius. She is a genius. She has always been such a fast reader, and I have always been so slow. Aunt H_____ says that you have to be a fast reader to be a good reader, so I've tried to go fast but I just can't." "You don't have to be a fast reader to be a good reader," I told her and I quoted from *How to Increase Reading Ability* by Albert J. Harris. "Speed is less important than comprehension, and should not be emphasized to the point where comprehension suffers. Understanding is the primary goal in reading and must be placed before everything else. The ideal is to read at the fastest rate that

allows perfect comprehension." "I wish I could show that to my mother and Aunt H_____." M. is at a loss when you mention parts of speech. She said she had it last year, but she didn't understand a word of it. She cannot find the verb and subject in a sentence.

July 7:

Learned fourteen words, but had trouble in learning them, because she didn't want to. She didn't feel like it. Later she said, "I don't like to learn. I don't like to learn anything. I know I have to learn, but I don't like to." She does want me to teach her the names of the parts of horses. She has to know them so she can pass a horse-show entrance examination. . . . Lamented the fact that she couldn't spell the names of the days of the week, and the months of the year. "I can't even spell the name of the month I was born in. It's April. I was born on the same day as my mother, April 29."

July 8:

Learned twenty-six words today. She was very interested in learning the parts of the horse. She is going to camp in two weeks and has to know the parts of a horse and saddle. She learns quickly when interested. . . . Had written three letters at home, and she brought them for me to see. She had continued to leave off the endings of some words, and she missed "families" and "feeling." She felt very embarrassed about these two words because "I know them." Read her story smoothly. . . . She wanted to read some in her manual. She is supposed to read it through before going to camp. It was entirely too difficult for her. She hadn't heard of "fossils, Arabs, Moors, Turks, Mongolians, Coronado, Caesar," etc. Having no background and not being able to sound out the words, she soon lost interest. I explained the best I could and read a lot to her.

Evaluation of progress, July 11:

Gave Marolyn a spelling test. On the Ayres Scale she scored one hundred on seventh-grade level. She has made three grades in spelling in four weeks. I did not teach her any words in the Ayres lists. We just worked on words she misspelled in her writing and words she did not know in her writing.

"What's the use of studying, anyway. Daddy says that the world is in such a mess that he thinks he'll go on a world cruise. Mother and Aunt H_____ get together every morning and drink

their coffee. They think the world is a mess, too." "Every generation has said that," I remarked. "The Bible tells us that one time there was only one family in the whole world which was good. Everyone else was murdering, etc. Think of all the good people you know, Marolyn. Remember the teachings of one man—who taught two things: Do the best you can to develop your personalities and love your neighbors." Marolyn lacks any religious concepts. Feels very unstable. Told me her mother never has gotten over her father's death. Wishes her home were larger. Wishes M_____ wouldn't keep tracking the dirt in. All the kids go up to play in her room—but "We'll have a playroom soon." After her criticism of anything she'll add, "but mother says . . ." "Mother says, it will be best." She never really dislikes anything, but she loves horses and sports. She is happy and thrilled most of the time. She just must have a job, "I can't live on one dollar a week allowance."

During a period of one month she has learned 205 new words, which she was able to use correctly in both speaking and writing, while her spelling performance rose from that of an average fourth-grader to that of an average seventh-grader, as measured by the Ayres Scale. An increasing ability to express herself in writing as more and more verbal barriers were removed was particularly encouraging. Her later compositions show remarkable imagination and freedom of expression when compared with her first short paragraphs.

Her performance on the Chapman-Cooke Speed of Reading Test (based on subject-matter comprehension) was twelve right of a possible thirty, the median for the seventh grade being fourteen and one-half right. Throughout the period of instruction Marolyn has been most coöperative, and proves to be a ready learner. Her most obvious need is for constant encouragement. Her obvious dislike of all reading still constitutes a major problem.

ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS

<i>Personality</i>	<i>Interpretation</i>
"Gee. They could learn? You don't have to start reading books?"	Does not like book learning. Likes encouragement.
"You mean sports? Oh, I love horses."	Is interested in horses.
"Oh, I can't. I can't talk about things."	Lacks confidence. Feels inferior about expression.
Marolyn waited for me to tell what to say and do.	Is dependent—hesitant.

ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS—(continued)

<i>Personality</i>	<i>Interpretation</i>
"I can't write. This is what I don't do well. I can't spell."	Feeling of inferiority about writing and spelling.
She made no mistakes, a fact that surprised and pleased her.	Responds to success.
"Here is your story typewritten. Read it for me" (teacher).	Reads her own stories easily.
Wrote story without error. Very pleased.	Responds to success.
The thoughts came quite easily because the story was about an experience she well remembered.	Learns easily those skills based on personal experience.
"There seems to be so much to learn, but you make me feel that I know a lot."	Responds to encouragement.
"There were so many I couldn't spell. I would get all upset."	Becomes emotional at failure.
"I surely hope I can write home good letters to my mother while I am away."	Motivated by letter writing.
I found if she just quickly puts a dash she goes on and finishes her story with interest.	Thoughts are fluent but blocked by skills.
"See, mother, I am not so dumb."	Inferiority complex.
She seemed happy and interested most of the time in learning new words she could use.	Is interested in functional use of words.
She couldn't think of anything else to say, so I suggested she tell what her family had been doing.	Needs constant encouragement.
When she finished her letter she moaned about her spelling.	Feels inferior about spelling.
She rewrote her letter without error and was pleased.	Responds to success.
I asked her two or three times if she would like to do this. "Oh, it's fun!"	Strongly motivated in writing stories about her experiences.
There is such a bored attitude that appears when she is asked to read.	Seems bored in reading material she has not previously written.

ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS—(continued)

<i>Personality</i>	<i>Interpretation</i>
Marolyn said she was jealous of Marcia when she was younger because she got all the attention.	Sibling jealousy.
"Aunt H. has a girl V. _____ who is a genius. She has always been such a fast reader, and I have always been so slow."	Interpersonal family relationships one cause of feeling of inferiority.
She does want me to teach her the names of the parts of horses. She has to know them so she can pass a horse-show entrance exam.	Interested in horses.
"I don't like to learn. I don't like to learn anything."	Emotional block against learning.
She was very interested in learning the parts of the horse. She is going to camp in two weeks and has to know the parts of a horse and saddle.	She learns quickly when interested.
"Sue always knows everything. She's always telling me off and I get so mad. But she's my best friend, though."	Feeling of inferiority when around her best friend.
"What's the use of studying, anyway. Daddy says that the world is in such a mess."	Easily discouraged. Needs constant stimulation.

REPLANNING THE ATTACK ON BASIS OF SYNTHESIS OF DATA AND EVALUATION

1. Avoid reading from books for a while. Encourage her to read and write her own stories.
2. Give constant encouragement.
3. Always use theme of "horses" for the current period.
4. Give more opportunity for oral expression, especially before writing of sentences.
5. Use tracing method for initial learning of words.
6. Guard against situations in which she may fail.
7. Use letter writing for instruction purposes.

8. Work with mother regarding home-relationships, e.g., relationships with younger sister and cousin.

Relation Between Reading Difficulties and Personality Maladjustment

The nature of the reading process will not permit it to be considered apart from the child's personality because we know it involves much more than the recognition of symbols, even more than comprehension or contemplation. During the process of reading a child's emotions are aroused, his attitudes are modified, and his experiences are reconstructed. Furthermore, reading includes an understanding of one's self and other people—even people in remote lands of the world. Many highly imaginative types of boys and girls find in literature an escape from the monotonous, sometimes unpleasant, activities of their daily lives. In their imagination they identify themselves with the heroes they would like to be in reality. This is one of the values frequently listed which children derive from reading. Four values of reading can be listed: (1) reading for escape (release of tension), (2) reading as a temporary diversion, (3) reading as an organizing influence on personality, and (4) reading for its instrumental effects or uses in relation to objective interests. All of these values are closely related to the personal-social needs so frequently mentioned in this book. So important are these needs in relation to reading that we may once more make note of them in a somewhat revised fashion. They are the need to develop understanding of one's self; the need to develop increasing independence in carrying out one's decisions and purposes without guidance; the need to have a fair balance between success and failure; the need to maintain self-esteem; and the need to develop an appreciation of values associated with democratic living.

A reading disability may be defined as any reading deficiency which interferes with the satisfaction of any of the personal-social needs. A summary of the role of personality maladjustment in reading disability by Gates (13) concludes that reading deficiencies are found in many varied personality types with differing home backgrounds, parental relationships, and emotional patterns. Very poor readers occasionally declare that they like to

read, whereas some excellent readers declare they do not. Again, some "reading failures" actually mention that they enjoy their role, although to enjoy a failure may itself be a symptom of maladjustment, because it is a normal need for every child to enjoy success.

It is a safe assumption that every child who has a reading disability has potentially a maladjusted personality. His progress in school is bound to be retarded; he will lose interest in the usual pursuits of his classmates; he will develop an inferiority complex with its accompanying frustrations and resulting compensations. When a child observes his peers learning how to read, it is a normal thing for him to do likewise. If he cannot succeed he may develop a dislike for books, papers, and pencils, and even his classmates who have surpassed him. Disturbances in reading success may be found because of an apparent indifference to the child's welfare by parent or teacher. Scoldings and predictions of failure, or too much supervision or overprotection, may also cause disturbance.

The child who makes little or no progress in reading also finds he must deal with the attitudes of disappointed parents, a perturbed teacher, and with the slanderous label of "dumb" pronounced on him by unsympathetic classmates. Soon he becomes overwhelmed with feelings of guilt and insecurity in his social life. The presence of anxiety and misunderstandings may even lead to resentment and antagonism toward any offers of help.

What are the symptoms of personality maladjustment of pupils who have reading disabilities? Summaries of symptoms have been made by several experts in the field. The most commonly observed of these symptoms are:

1. Nervous tensions and habits, such as stuttering, nail biting, restlessness, insomnia, and pathological illness. . . .
2. Putting on a bold front as a defense reaction, loud talk, defiant conduct, sullenness. . . .
3. Retreat reactions such as withdrawal from ordinary associations, joining outside gangs, and truancy. . . .
4. Counterattack, such as making mischief in school, playing practical jokes, thefts, destructiveness, cruelty, bullying. . . .

5. Withdrawing reactions, including mind-wandering and daydreaming. . . .
6. Extreme self-consciousness, becoming easily injured, blushing, developing peculiar fads and frills and eccentricities, inferiority feelings. . . .
7. Give-up or submissive adjustments, as shown by inattentiveness, indifference, apparent laziness. . . . (12:208)

Sherman, who made psychiatric studies of a number of severely retarded readers, listed their most common symptoms as:

Indifference to the problem of failure and emphasis upon some skill or interest as compensation for school inadequacy.

Instances in which even a slight reading defect causes withdrawal from effort and, in some cases, results in emotional disturbances. Some of these children become behavior and disciplinary problems as a result of these emotional upheavals.

Antagonism to academic problems and a defensive reaction to any activity relating to school.

Refusal to improve reading ability, as a bid for attention and as a mark of differentiation. In some instances children who have had reading difficulties have received a great deal of attention, not only from teachers, but also from their parents. In consequence, failure has become synonymous with personal attention, and as the result these children may at times unconsciously refuse to improve their reading level (30).

Witty and Kopel reported that at least 50 percent of their cases of subject-matter disabilities at the Northwestern Psycho-educational Clinic had fears and anxieties sufficiently serious to require therapeutic measures, and they stressed "success rather than failure, regular habits, home coöperation and participation in endeavor which provided opportunities for the development of such character traits as initiative and self-direction, . . . more effective social relationships, and, finally, a sense of security. Bad behavior, we found, is generally a reflection of school and home situations which are barren in opportunity for varied experience and which are saturated with tensions resulting from attempts to make all children equally amenable" (46:231).

Although the more severe cases of reading disability should be referred to a specialist, the teacher may help pupils with minor

emotional and personality difficulties. In the beginning years of school, the adjustment from home to school is a serious one for young children. They must get along with others, learn to regard themselves as they are regarded by their peers, and learn to adjust to a more rigid and demanding schedule of activities. This adjustment is so difficult for some pupils that they refuse to accept the extra burden of adjusting to the learning process involved in beginning reading.

Under an integrated experience-centered type of curriculum the teaching of skills in communication can be a vital, natural, and interesting procedure for pupils. All the requirements of learning are easily provided; that is, motivation, meaningful goals, learning the necessary skills in removing the barriers to the goals, evaluating and refining behavior in order to eliminate the uneconomical procedures, and maintaining the skills needed for future experiences. Because of the recognized importance of each child and his individual abilities, emotions, interests, and purposes, and because of the absence of an analytical, sometimes illogical, sequence of objectives and items of subject matter, the teacher finds the responsibilities of guidance a challenging process.

Guidance in Quantitative Thinking

The major objective of teaching arithmetic is to develop the child's ability in quantitative thinking to a degree which will enable him to live as a worthy citizen in our democracy. As with all learning in the elementary school, the accomplishment of this objective requires a rich variety of real and meaningful experiences which will give children an opportunity to apply quantitative procedures in a functional manner. The quantitative aspects of experience units now so frequently found in modern schoolrooms will remain unbalanced, even unauthentic, if the quantitative aspects are avoided or neglected. How can a child, for instance, gain a true concept of a post office without knowing about the costs of sending a letter, or sending a package by parcel post, or insuring a package, or buying a money order? How can a child read the newspaper intelligently without understanding the meaning of "millions" and "billions," or how can he under-

stand American democracy without understanding the percentage of his father's total income which can be deducted for medical expenses?

The incidental need for numbers in the experiences of children in their daily classroom activities is insufficient to learn the desired amount of arithmetic information and skills. The teacher, however, does not rely on incidental occurrence of number situations alone. Guidance requires direction, control, and continuous evaluation of experiences. Kindergarten and first-grade teachers are no longer depending solely on incidental arithmetical situations for informal number work. Why should it be any more reasonable to rely on incidental numbers in an experience unit?

It is appropriate, too, to be more explicit about the phrase "experience unit." There are prominent educators who advocate experience units in arithmetic; others suggest an experience unit on science; others plan experience units in art or music. This philosophy carried to the extreme is little better than the traditional subject-centered curriculum. In the place of textbooks or textbook chapters on subjects, there would be substituted experience units on subjects. An experience unit should be selected on the basis of its possible contribution to all of the broader objectives of education rather than on the basis of its contribution toward learning any one subject area.

Quantitative aspects of a child's life depend upon a number of abilities developing continuously from pre-kindergarten age. He learns concepts of big, little, more, much, fast, slow, away, here, there—all part of everyday language, yet significant as the beginnings of quantitative concept. Later his observation and interpretation of pictures will include a quantitative quality; his play with large and small objects, his drawings, his eating, these, too, have a place in the development of number concept. Arithmetical ability is not just a process of maturation, or specific maturation such as in the physical structure of the eye or ossification of the bones. We no longer wait until the third grade for its development; rather, we guide the child into experiences which will develop it. His arithmetical concepts are developed through the use of pictures, conversation, excursions, storytelling, films, drawing and painting, and buying and selling. This is the initial

stage of quantitative thinking. If numbers are used, they are simple and recognized from the teacher's writing them on the blackboard or on charts.

With advancing stages of development, topics can be considered which deal with individual and community economic competence. The essentials of such competence include skill in the intelligent use of money, the conservation and protection of human and material resources, the knowledge of productive processes which help to increase real income, a knowledge of the basis of common business practices, an interest in the use of tax money, a critical attitude toward data, an understanding of the fundamental relationships and interdependence of social and economic life, a realization of the necessity of greater world economic coöperation, and an interest in and desire to participate in socioeconomic change (6). In the middle elementary grades the child makes rapid progress in fundamental arithmetic habits and attitudes. Usually he masters the simpler processes with whole numbers, his knowledge and understanding of social arithmetic is expanded, and he develops the ability to apply simple quantitative methods in his affairs.

Educators use every opportunity to teach pupils how to interpret tables, graphs, and diagrams in the course of finding answers to real problems by reading reference books, newspapers, or other printed sources. Skillful reading of these materials frequently consumes a fair proportion of the school day allotted to arithmetical instruction. If the skills are to be maintained, attention must be given to the practice exercises which can be found in current arithmetic textbooks and workbooks.

Guidance in arithmetic learning demands a thorough understanding of the word "meaning." Unlike a word or phrase, the meaning of an arithmetical combination can rarely be developed by talking about it or by seeing a teacher work it out on the blackboard. Meaningful arithmetic has two aspects: the first, which we have already discussed, refers to a social situation in which pupils can see the use of numbers; the second refers to the meaningfulness of the number symbols and processes. Social meaningfulness results when, in the course of their activities, the teacher and pupils need to solve a problem through the use of

arithmetic. A purpose must be clearly defined, the motives must be present to stimulate activity toward achievement, arithmetic skills must be learned before the goal is reached, and the skills producing success must be practiced to be maintained.

For each pupil the teacher should make a careful study of the following factors associated with difficulties in arithmetical processes, as suggested by Brueckner:

Arithmetical elements such as:

1. Number sense—meaning of numbers and number systems
2. Knowledge of fundamental combinations
3. Knowledge of specific steps in procedures and of sequence in which to use them in computation
4. Vocabulary and basic quantitative concepts
5. Understanding of meaning of processes
6. Maturity and efficiency of methods of work
7. Confusion of processes
8. Interferences
9. Zero difficulties
10. Checking of work to locate errors
11. Ability to read explanations of procedures
12. Arrangement and orderliness of written work

Intellectual factors:

1. Intelligence level and mental age
2. Attention span
3. Lapses
4. Retroactive inhibition
5. Methods of learning
6. Ingenuity and resourcefulness
7. Experiential background

Personality factors:

1. Interest in arithmetic
2. Attitude toward arithmetic and disability (apathy)
3. Effort
4. Emotional stability
5. Carelessness
6. Self-control under varying conditions
7. Feeling of inferiority

Constitutional factors:

1. Visual acuity
2. Auditory acuity

3. Nutrition
4. Fatigue
5. Focal abnormalities
6. Reaction time
7. Rate of maturation

Instructional factors:

1. Difficulty and arrangement of curriculum
2. Effectiveness of methods of teaching
3. Adaptation of instruction to individual differences
4. Quality and adequacy of learning materials

Environmental factors:

1. Unstable, unhappy homes
2. Uninspiring classroom situation
3. Opportunities to use number in life outside the school (6:415).

The teacher then gives each pupil a nonstandardized diagnostic test in a formal problem-solving situation, noting carefully the pupil's behavior, his remarks, his attitudes—in fact, any significant reactions which she thinks might be of value in making a diagnosis. The test is followed by oral questioning, oral thinking while a problem is being solved, and an analysis of the written work. A teacher's notes regarding one of her pupils have been abbreviated as follows:

THE CASE OF MARCUS

Marcus appears to lack persistence. Once he gave up entirely by throwing the pencil on the desk and saying, "I hate this stuff!" After a minute of staring into space he began once more, however, and struggled through the second problem. The first problem he left unfinished. With the third problem he hinted for help by saying, "Do you add or subtract?" Upon being told that multiplication may be the thing to do, he constantly referred to a written table form to get the product. He crased constantly, partly because he was not sure of the process and partly because he lacked mastery. Much of his time was spent gazing at the bulletin board. He left his seat to sharpen his pencil and leisurely took his time returning after being distracted by the playing children he could see from an open window. He chewed his pencil, tapped it on the desk occasionally, and for fully two minutes he examined his pocket knife. Twice he looked in his arithmetic book in an attempt to find similar problems. The last two problems (out of seven) he refused to try, saying that he couldn't read the words.

Planning the Attack to Help the Individual Pupil

1. Teach the understanding and arithmetical meaning of the process:
(a) use concrete objects and direct experience; (b) develop concept of "place value."
2. Teach the number facts and procedures necessary to complete the solution of problems the pupil must solve in his social and science activities.
3. Make further observations of behavior and analysis of written and oral responses to discover faulty thought processes or uneconomical procedures.
4. Give intensive motivation in reading containing quantitative statements.
5. Provide basic experiences to develop the meaning of arithmetic vocabulary.
6. Encourage the pupil to draw pictures or objectify the solutions of problems, real or verbal.
7. Help the pupil to identify situations which require the use of the different arithmetical processes.
8. Provide situations which encourage the estimation of answers.

The Diagnostic Process in the Guidance of Learning

The diagnosis of a learning difficulty requires thought on the part of the counselor or teacher and the pupil. It involves the formation of judgments and hypotheses. Scores on a test may be useful, but must always be supplemented with other information.

The usefulness of a diagnostic test is dependent upon the degree to which it will permit the teacher to analyze specifics. A general achievement test of arithmetical skills given to a fourth-grade pupil, for example, would test such skills as addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and fractions. Each of these procedures should not only be tested separately, but subtests should enable the teacher to analyze specific elements in each process. Even though it were possible, however, for a pencil-and-paper test to analyze specific elementary and detailed learning components, it is rarely necessary or desirable, because once a gen-

eral area is located as a source of difficulty, a large amount of detailed diagnosis can be observed by the teacher.

Traxler (39) advises four forms of a diagnostic test as a minimum. The first form can be given at the beginning of an instructional period so that the results can be used for identifying strengths and weaknesses. The second form can be used several weeks after instruction to determine progress and to reconsider plans for further teaching. The third form may be used at the conclusion of the training period to help determine the amount or lack of progress. The fourth form can be used several months after the conclusion of the instruction in order to measure retention of gains made during the training period. When teachers and pupils have located definite and specific weaknesses, as revealed by diagnosis, the task still remains for collecting materials and planning methods to meet specific needs.

In conclusion, it is well to remember that learning difficulties arise from a variety of causes, which can be diagnosed only partially by standardized diagnostic tests. In the cases of reading and arithmetic used for illustrative purposes in this chapter, lack of skills will invariably be accompanied by personal maladjustment. The older the child, the more severe is this maladjustment likely to be. Pencil-and-paper tests often provide clues to basic causes of learning failure, but complete understanding of difficulties is possible only after the use of such methods as the case history, interviews, anecdotal records, and projective techniques.

SUMMARY

Learning is generally defined as a form of change in motor skill, emotional reaction, pattern of thinking, or interests. A total of all of the experiences which result in learning may be referred to as the curriculum. Growth in the direction of health requires experiences based on more than the limited academic, subject-organized course of study. A learning situation has the characteristic sequence of the following steps: (1) an urge (motivation) for action because of a tension within the organism, (2) the release of tension when the goal has been attained, (3) some type of action in attempting to reach the goal, (4) elimination of unnec-

essary movements, and (5) maintenance of the successful act by further elimination of superfluous action. Learning occurs because of experience. In the experience-centered curriculum, guidance is continuously required to guarantee that the experiences are significant, meet the test of socially desirable educational goals, and are based upon current information about children's patterns of learning.

Guidance requires a knowledge of what a child can undertake and accomplish most advantageously at a given period. The four major areas to which we can turn for guidance in an attempt to determine the proper sequence for children at various levels of background are (1) educational philosophy, (2) psychology of learning, (3) child growth and development, (4) sociology. Contributions from these fields point to the conclusion that no curriculum is appropriate for all children at the same instance; therefore, learning must be an individual matter. The subject matter is determined by its relationships to the child's physical development, his mental age, and his experiential background. A child cannot learn without the opportunity for an experience; but having been given the opportunity, he will profit from it only as his level of development will permit.

Individual guidance is necessary in learning in the curriculum areas as well as in personality adjustment. Specifically, these learnings refer to the subject matter of well-defined content fields such as communicative arts, quantitative thinking, scientific thinking, and social learning. The common features of guidance in subject matter are concerned with a standardized sequence of thinking under the field of objectives, methods of determining the degree of achieving these objectives, the factors associated with faulty learning, techniques for locating factors interfering with successful learning, and suggestions for overcoming faults revealed by diagnosis. In this chapter a specific case study was discussed as an example of guidance in an area of the communication skills.

Guidance in quantitative thinking requires an up-to-date knowledge of new methods. Within the last ten years, for example, there has been considerable literature on the importance of rationalization and meaningfulness to the arithmetic fundamen-

tals. It is now questionable whether permanent improvement will result from repetition and drill without first establishing the meaning of number. This makes remedial teaching much more difficult, because it is easier to subject a child to a vigorous drill routine than it is to make him understand.

The entire field of guidance requires careful diagnosis of difficulties, whether they pertain to personality traits or to the acquisition of information and skills in academic subject matter. Difficulties in subject matter are closely integrated with maladjustment in personality. Likewise, progress in remedial teaching of subject matter can seldom be obtained without attention to the emotional factors of personality.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. State your definition of learning; then, in terms of this definition, justify counseling as a learning process.
2. Which of the concepts of counseling do you prefer, directive or nondirective? Why?
3. Counseling is learning in four areas as described in this chapter. Give an illustration in each area.
4. Is the interview a therapeutic device? Explain.
5. In what areas can the teacher assist a child by changing environment? Explain.
6. Why should a diagnosis of learning difficulties in a curriculum area be included in the scope of guidance?
7. What is the relationship of the personality of the child and learning?
8. How is guidance involved in the communication skills?
9. What relationship has quantitative thinking to development of good citizenship?
10. Some authorities define guidance as any phase of education other than "the instructional phase." Do you agree? Why or why not?

CHAPTER 8

Guidance in Groups

INTRODUCTION

The education of a child is a condition of gradual change determined by his natural characteristics of growth and development and his interaction with environmental forces. The home and neighborhood, for example, may have far greater impact on the emotional life than does the schoolroom. We can do much to determine the type of environment in the classroom, but the child's total environment consists of the culture of the people among whom he grows up; the physical aspects of the region; the material objects he has around him; and the folkways, mores, art, knowledge, language, and habits of the groups of human beings with whom he lives. These are aspects of environment more difficult to deal with than immediate classroom atmosphere and methods; nevertheless, even they are not impenetrable.

The purpose of guidance in groups is not entirely an economical one to be substituted for individual guidance. It has purposes in its own right. The first to be considered is that of helping the pupil to achieve self-direction through coöperating with the group. This, in essence, is guiding the pupil toward socialization, and is opposed to the theory of *laissez-faire*, which proposes that the individual will become socialized naturally, with-

out guidance. Through guidance in the group the child develops a wide and expanding range of social contact and intercourse accompanied by social sensitivity and a coöperative attitude; he learns to adapt himself to an extensive, complex system of coöperative living. Careful guidance, however, respects the child's individuality and does not expect him to be submerged by the group. It merely recognizes that there are no distinct lines separating private and public problems. Guidance is applicable to the individual as a member of a group equally as much as it is to the individual considered alone.

Just as in private guidance, the values of group guidance divide themselves into developmental, diagnostic, and therapeutic. Included in the developmental values is the building of good social habits, such as responsibility, initiative, self-reliance, and honesty, as well as the ability to get along peaceably and happily with others. With proper guidance the child builds attitudes of tolerance, respect, sympathy, and good will toward all races, classes, and nations. Therapeutically, group activities contribute to social adjustment. The timid and submissive, for example, find situations in which these liabilities can be overcome. It is good for the child to feel that he is accepted, needed, liked, and helpful in a group. He learns to think of himself in terms of what others think and expect of him. Social expectancy, for instance, helps him to turn away from attitudes of aggressiveness, hostility, egocentricity, and lack of consideration of others. To continue to be accepted by the group, he finds he must be tolerant of the likes and dislikes of other persons. If he finds himself a member of a group facing the same problem—stuttering, for instance—he finds it easier to release tension through verbalizing his fears and anxieties, because he knows he will get a sympathetic and understanding ear. By careful observation of the child in the group, the guidance worker can diagnose causes and effects of maladjustment and occasionally lead the pupil to recognize them also. Diagnosis and therapy develop together in a group situation.

Because the group is a democratic entity, we find in it fertile training ground for democratic ideals. Other than helping pupils to discover the superiority of coöperation and group effort to sel-

fishness and personal ambition, group guidance develops a philosophy of life which will enable the pupil to consider institutions and customs critically and to accept change when it seems desirable. Under proper guidance he will participate in a group in collecting, evaluating, and organizing data to form a conclusion. It is democratic to meet with a group which is working, thinking, and achieving together in terms of some common problem. It is the group's responsibility to define and limit the problem and to decide the plan of action for its solution; and in the process each individual has the freedom to acquire, to examine, and to question data, and to suggest how the problem can be solved. This is the democratic process in action. In it the pupil is asked to assume responsibilities by classmates, to accept leadership in small groups, to participate in making decisions, and to work with people with whom he is not too well acquainted. Democracy demands citizens who are willing to coöperate. The necessary skills of coöperation must be taught in the schools, just as are skills in computation, writing, and speaking.

Socialization and democratization of the pupil are the result of curriculum organization, of methods of teaching, and of administrative practices. The greater part of the socializing process will occur in the classroom under the guidance of the teacher who provides a variety of activities in which pupils are directed toward positive, constructive purposes in terms of individual growth and social welfare. The teacher dominates the situation only in defining the field of activity. She is, however, the directing force in keeping the activity moving according to time schedules, in evaluating what has been accomplished in terms of established objectives, and in bringing into focus problems common to the group.

If maximum benefits are to be derived from group-guidance procedures, it is necessary that the guidance worker have an understanding of the social growth and developmental aspects of childhood. She must also be familiar with the optimum conditions under which group learning occurs. This requires some appreciation of the handicaps imposed by the traditional system of classifying pupils in the public schools and some of the more recent systems of grouping. It also requires a familiarity with

techniques for determining the social structure of groups and for using guidance to improve this structure. These are the topics to be considered in the following pages. The chapter will be concluded with a discussion of the possibilities of group psychotherapy and an evaluation of group-guidance methods. Is there a real and significant difference between psychotherapy and group guidance?

CHILDHOOD CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT (36)

The Social Behavior of the Child Nearing Five

A child approaching his fifth birthday is normally self-centered and plays much of the time by himself, even when other children are around. Occasionally he plays in small groups, rarely exceeding five in number. His play consists of running about at random or manipulating kiddy cars, tricycles, scooters, wagons, or blocks. He enjoys playing in sand piles, pounding nails, or sawing boards, and resents interference with his play or possessions. He "shows off," but has learned not to cry, grab, or push when other children are in his domain. Leadership appears early in some children. Most children of this age enjoy helping adults and should be given the opportunity of doing so. The interests of boys and girls are similar, although boys quarrel more and girls talk more.

The Social Behavior of the Young School Child

A child's social behavior will be determined largely by the social environmental changes as he matures. The teacher assumes a place of great importance to the young child. He watches closely for her smiles, her praises, her sarcasms, or her ridicules. Boys and girls of this age play together on equal terms. All of them normally enjoy organized small-group play, for periods not exceeding 15 minutes, in activities of skipping, dancing to music, or dramatic play. They like to climb and jump from heights, catch and throw balls, or express themselves through movement. These children are interested in the activity rather than the result or product, and because their attention span is short they

can remain still for a limited time only. This is the time to observe closely to detect the withdrawn child, determine causes, and plan for prevention of possible serious personality disturbance.

Social Characteristics of Middle Childhood

This is the age of wanting to belong to a group. Small groups with six to ten members often form gangs or secret clubs unisexual in nature and regulated through self-formulated codes of conduct such as playing fair, dividing spoils, and doing one's share in the group. In the classroom it is especially important that the child feels he belongs to the group and that he has a part in formulating the rules and regulations. He needs to excel in at least one thing and may seek prestige through size, boasting, and rivalry. Although he enjoys a certain amount of participation in family affairs, this is the age of escape from the family into the society of other children. For example, he prefers his friends to his family for companionship in attending the movies. He enjoys such sports as playing in caves, gathering nuts, making campfires, skating, riding bicycles, and teamwork in organized play.

Social Characteristics of the Preadolescent Child

Individual differences in physique, sociability, and the emotions are more distinct and numerous at this age than at any other. For this reason each child must be studied to learn about his social problems, his assets and liabilities, and his need for a rich and varied social experience. Prestige among peers becomes more important than adult approval; thus there must be opportunity for many types of social contact in club programs, church activities, boy and girl scout groups, YMCA, campfire girls, and camping. Children of this age usually like to begin social dancing. There is an increasing interest in outdoor sports and in more highly organized team games such as football, kickball, and modified soccer. Competition is keen, yet there is a desire and respect for good sportsmanship and a willingness to submerge personal ego for the good of the team or group. The unskilled child will appear to be extremely self-conscious; thus,

he must be taught certain skills before we can expect successful group participation. He is willing to practice skills for hours in order to gain proficiency. If a shy child is helped to gain some special skill, he may then show more confidence and eventually gain status in his group.

The puberty cycle in boys occurs between 10 and 18½ years of age, and in girls between the ages of 10 and 13. Children of the preadolescent and adolescent period have strong interests in sex, and some children may be rather emotional about bodily changes. Sex consciousness may be accompanied by self-consciousness and shyness with the opposite sex.

Factors Contributing to Differences in Childhood Social Behavior

Even during the first few months of life there appear to be marked differences between children in social behavior. Just how much of this difference is due to native characteristics and how much to environment is impossible to determine. Regardless of these two factors, however, we are certain that the behavior of a child will have some effect on those around him, which, in turn, influences his own conduct. A sociable child will have more opportunity to meet adults and other children than will a shy child. The one becomes even more sociable, the other even less so. A shy, isolated child is not always maladjusted; neither is an extroverted, aggressive child always adjusted. The assets and liabilities of each child must be appraised by examining his past environment and behavior in terms of what the child is rather than what he ought to be. Apparent maladjustment within a particular group may not represent a real maladjustment, but that the child is in the wrong group. A group of children whose standards are influenced by prejudices borrowed from their elders may indicate their dislike for a pupil who does not accept these standards. Actually the isolated pupil may have more worthwhile contributions to offer than those of the group. Such situations are rare, yet frequent enough to warrant close study of every child. Education has a societal setting; thus, guidance of children in social situations is an issue of vital importance. When a child does not adjust well to the classroom group in which he

happens to be, something must be done. Either he should be placed in another group to which he is able to adjust or, if diagnosis indicates it is advisable for him to do so, he should be aided to adjust to his present group. Classification of pupils has been a crucial issue in school administration for centuries. Let us look at the classification problem more specifically.

TRADITIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS

School Administrative Attempts to Group Pupils

The Graded-School System

The graded school has become a great American tradition. Adults organize memories of their childhood experiences in terms of school grades. Note the familiar remarks of any adult who talks at length about his school days: "The happiest year of my life was when I was in the *fifth grade*"; "I got along fine in school until I came to the *seventh grade*"; "I still remember my *second-grade* teacher." The graded-school idea was sponsored over 100 years ago by such well-known educators as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard. Everyone is familiar with the traditional plan. Children were to start to school at about the age of 6, when they entered grade one. Here they were required to learn (memorize) the contents of the *first-grade* reader, the *first-grade* speller, and the *first-grade* number book. If they mastered these books they were rewarded at the end of the year by being promoted to the *second grade*; and so, all through the elementary school, children were expected to complete a grade each year until they finished the elementary school by receiving a diploma from the *eighth grade*.

Inherent in the tradition of the schooling process, education has been concerned with learning successive bits of information and acquiring skills listed in courses of study and *graded* textbooks. Graded lists of spelling words; graded arithmetic problems; names and dates of wars and their generals; names of rivers, states, and capitols; names of explorers and where they explored; names and location of cities and their characteristics; names of oceans, mountains, countries, and their products; and

the seven basic food groups. This information was to accumulate in the storehouses of knowledge from year to year until at the end of grade eight there presumably existed an educated child. The information was supposedly taught by whippings, staying in at recess, coaxing, rewarding with stars and punishing by marks of D or E or F, drilling, reviewing, testing, reciting. The objective was to get a pupil at the point of passing.

In the traditional system there was no question that all children were different when they entered the first grade, except in regard to the one item of chronological age. The objective, however, was to make them all alike. At the end of the year those who had become alike in the respect of acquiring subject matter were promoted. Those who could not conform were retained until they could become like the others. Needless to say, the graded-school system has failed in many of its objectives. Even that pupils had acquired the minimum of subject matter can be questioned. When achievement alone is considered, pupils can be made alike by instruction only if the responses to be learned are simple and the goals so limited that a high proportion of the pupils can master them during the period of learning. If, however, the learning be complex, involving the higher mental processes, then children become even more unlike under the influence of teaching.

Every teacher of beginning-school children will verify the conclusions of Cook (11) that when a random group of 6-year-old children enter grade one, 2 percent of them will be below the average 4-year-old in mental maturity, and 2 percent will be above the average 8-year-old. Even when we disregard these extremes at either end, there is a four-year range in general intelligence, and by the time this group of children has reached the age of 12 the range will have increased to almost eight years. In other words, in a classroom group of 12-year-old children who have been measured by a standardized reading achievement test, there will be found a pupil with a 8-year-old reading ability and another with a 16-year-old reading ability. The recognition of individual differences has been of concern in psychological and educational circles since the time of Francis Galton. The graded school system was one of the first and certainly has been the most

persistent of school administrative attempts to meet these differences. Coexisting with the graded-school system have been the various promotion schemes designed to permit the grouping of pupils who are more alike in achievement of subject matter. Let us examine these in some detail.

The Promotion System

Numerous plans have been proposed through the years to prevent children from having to remain in the same grade for too long because they have failed to reach minimum academic achievement. Some of the proposals are semiannual, quarterly, subject, and special promotions. We should mention other schemes also, such as holding standards constant and increasing instruction for slow pupils by giving the regular teacher an assistant, by establishing opportunity rooms, by providing special remedial teachers, by using audio-visual aids for the slow learners, by establishing vacation schools for the retarded. Certainly we should not fail to cite the dual- and multi-tracked curriculum for the fast, medium, and slow learners. Similar to this is the system of attempted classification of pupils into slow, medium, and fast learners.

In the case of the semiannual promotion, the most popular of the promotion schemes, overagedness is often more pronounced because teachers have less hesitation in not promoting children. Under the graded promotional plan, one of the chief devices has been to accelerate by "grade skipping" the advanced pupils and to retard the slower pupils by nonpromotion. Two studies have indicated that in the case of acceleration there have been no harmful effects on the pupils (53). Objections to acceleration on the basis of academic achievement alone, however, are valid because of failure to consider such traits as physical, social and emotional aspects.

Three general observations have caused many educators to become skeptical not only of the graded-school system but of the nonpromotion system. In the first place, it has been experimentally shown that pupils who repeat grades do little if any better the year they repeat a grade than they do the first year therein (53). Furthermore, the school with a low retardation rate is sig-

nificantly higher in the achievement level of most subjects than is the school that tends to retain the low-ability pupils (53). In the second place, teaching is no more difficult in classes of so-called "heterogeneous groups" than in the so-called "homogeneous groups," as will be discussed in later paragraphs. In the third place, pupils who are not promoted are likely to develop personality maladjustments or deepen those already in existence.

Because of these criticisms many schools are adopting the non-failure or continuous-promotion system. Under such a plan, a child is never retained in the same grade but may even be accelerated. Instruction is adapted to the needs of the pupils at all times by means of experience units or by grouping children within classes in such a manner as to stimulate the highest individual potentialities.

The nonfailure plan has met criticism on several fronts. The first is the supposed increase in the variability of classes and achievement standards in the upper grades. It is argued that promoting children who are below achievement standards will tend to reduce the mean achievement and remove the incentive of pupils to learn. Controlled studies, however, have shown that this is not the case. Schools with strict promotion policies retain the slow-learning pupils from one to five years longer, causing a consequent excess of dull pupils in all classes. The excess of retarded pupils in the upper grades increases rather than decreases the range of achievement (12).

Another argument is presented with the questions, "Is there any danger that the pupils may reach a stage on the education ladder where the activities of the group will become too complex for understanding?" "Will the pupil not develop mental frustration because of his inability to progress as rapidly as the group?" "Will a slow pupil who is promoted each year eventually find himself where instruction will have no meaning?" If this is not the case, then education will have become so individualized that the social relationships on which the nonfailure policy is based will be nonexistent (18). Arguments of this nature are based upon the philosophy that the sole purpose of the elemen-

tary school is the acquisition of academic achievement. Acquisition of subject matter is only one objective of the elementary school. The theory of continuous promotion accepts the traditional organizational plan of public education, that of the grade-to-grade or step-by-step pattern in which the child climbs up the educational ladder until he has attended school for 12 years. This encourages the point of view that a pupil is to obtain an educational dosage of a prescribed amount each year, and that the school is operated with subject matter as the basis for organization. The objectives of the school must be clearly defined before any meaningful approach can be made to the problem of grouping.

A more valid argument against the nonfailure program is that it is based upon homogeneous grouping according to chronological age.

Homogeneous Grouping

If children begin the elementary school at 6 years of age, the theory of yearly promotion presupposes that they will be grouped according to their chronological age. This is a form of homogeneous grouping based upon one factor, chronological age. Grouping children together on the basis of one factor alone, whether it be chronological age, mental age, academic achievement, or even sex, does not guarantee that members of the group will be alike. Tiegs (49) showed that in a study of 25 pupils who were identical in IQ, MA, and CA, average variations of three to five or more years existed in other traits. Memory, for example, which plays an important part in most types of learning, can vary as much as eight months in a group of children all having an IQ of 107. To use chronological age as a strong determinant of group placement is a questionable system, if we are to recognize studies in child development. The different stages of physiological maturation are only loosely correlated with chronological age. Likewise, a child does not mature at an equal rate mentally, emotionally, or socially. Where homogeneous grouping has been attempted on any one trait, for example, CA or IQ, it has been found that the average difference between groups is less pro-

nounced than the difference within a single group. Homogeneous grouping will reduce heterogeneity only about 20 percent because of the fact that trait differences for each individual may vary as much as 80 percent between individuals in the class (3).

Even if it were possible, then, to form a homogeneous group, it should not remain homogeneous because of individual rates of growth. An even more striking argument against chronological age as the sole factor in grouping is that, physiologically, girls are 10 percent more mature than boys of the same age. In the average school the range of mental development which a teacher of a typical first grade can expect is 5 years. The typical sixth-grade teacher will find mental ages in her group ranging from 8 to 16 years, regardless of promotion policies (15).

In order to reduce these wide ranges of differences, children have been given intelligence and achievement tests based on the assumptions that uniform textbooks can be used, that uniform assignments can be made, that class recitations can be held, and that standardized examinations will test the results. Studies on the results of this scheme show that when pupils are grouped on the basis of educational age (heavily weighed in favor of reading-arithmetic scores), we may expect a reduction of about 20 percent in the range of ability in each of three groups. Instead of a range of eight years in reading abilities in the sixth grade, for example, the range can be reduced to six years. There would be no reduction in range of abilities in art, music, handwriting, science, or mechanical arts (12).

All attempts at homogeneous grouping, then, have more or less ended in failure except when educational objectives have been narrowly defined and measured by standardized tests of achievement in subject matter. Even in those cases where heterogeneity has been reduced, the reduction has not remained for any great length of time. Educators still have faith in the grouping system, not only because of economic necessity but also because of accomplishment of desirable educational objectives. If traditional systems of grouping have been unsatisfactory, what are some of the current procedures for guiding and teaching pupils in groups?

MODERN GROUPING METHODS

The Philosophy and Procedure of Modern Grouping Methods

Modern grouping methods range from modification of the graded-school nonfailure program to the nongraded, nonfailure program. An example of the graded nonfailure program is the practice of the elementary schools of Minneapolis. The first four years of the school, so as to be considered as a unit, are called the early elementary school. A child spends a year each in the kindergarten, first grade, second grade, and third grade. In each year the teacher adapts the curriculum to the needs of each child, using all the enriched experiences at her command. The child progresses from grade to grade according to his ability and at his own rate. When these first four years are considered as a unit there will be less emphasis on each grade as a distinct and separate block (46).

Children should be grouped with associates with whom they can work, play, and live most advantageously. When pupils are unhappy and cannot adjust to their classmates and teacher, they should be removed to another group, either to another classroom or to another group within the classroom. Wise teachers have little tolerance for minimum essentials, grade standards, promotion schemes, and marking systems. How can grade norms, for instance, have a significance when there are no grades? A good grouping system cannot be rigidly defined. As an illustration, a group brought together to plan a mural may be entirely different from a group learning the process of long division. Furthermore, after these group problems are finished, the group may never meet together again. The members of these temporary groups may become members of other groups. This does not amount to a rejection of the grouping system. Although learning is an individual matter, in the sense that each child learns from his own activity, it does not follow that some learning may not occur as a result of a group activity. Small face-to-face groups exercise a greater influence upon the child than do larger groups

where interpersonal exchange is difficult. These small groups may be under the supervision of a home-room teacher, or perhaps they may be formed temporarily by members from two or three home rooms.

The labeling of school books by grades should be discontinued, and in its place there should be substituted a code number indicating to the teacher the difficulty of the material. A wealth of instructional material having a wide range of difficulty, interest, and appeal should be provided in each classroom. Curriculum content should be organized around large units in the social studies or science areas and made meaningful by motion pictures, field trips, pamphlets, and books. The skills of language and arithmetic should emerge from purposes determined by the experience units. Solving pupil-teacher problems should require use of reference materials, research, writing, interviewing, presenting oral reports, working arithmetic problems, group planning, discussion, and evaluation. All of these are included in the curriculum activities which challenge the intellectually superior, yet give satisfaction of achievement to the intellectually slow.

Graded lists of skills and knowledge are used by the teacher as check lists and as sequence materials for subgroups of pupils. Standardized tests in the skills of reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic are employed to help her gauge and proportion a balance of emphasis and time to a systematic development of necessary skills growing out of situations found in the experience unit. Groups are formed for learning these skills, for understanding how to share responsibility in setting up and accomplishing goals, and for evaluating progress made.

Each child must be evaluated in all phases of his development rather than in his academic achievements alone. Such evaluation requires an accumulation of samples of work and anecdotal or other observational records. Entire classroom groups, small groups, and individual activities are all used to solve problems of common concern. Personal responsibility for the welfare of the group is continuously emphasized.

In the elementary school system, children should be accepted at 5 years of age and for seven years be offered all the educational opportunities best suited to their needs. At approximately age

12 each pupil should be advanced into junior high school. The "grade" classification should be abandoned, and with it, of course, should go the concept of "grade norms." The original classification of such a system would proceed according to a "developmental or organismic age," including the concept of sociometrics. Although groups of pupils would be more or less permanent throughout the seven years of elementary school, the plan would be flexible enough for any change which diagnosis indicated necessary. Within the groups there would be a continuous formation and dispersion of small groups of pupils. The permanence of such groups would depend entirely upon the purpose of its formation. In our generalization, note that three new concepts have been cited: the developmental or organismic age, the sociometric system of determining group structure, and the formation of small groups within a larger group for purposes of special attention. These are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Grouping for Learning the Skills

The best criterion for grouping pupils is the particular task to be accomplished. It is convenient to classify these tasks broadly under the acquisition of academic skills and desirable social attitudes and behavior. The acquisition of academic skills can be illustrated in the areas of reading and arithmetic. Let us begin with a consideration of learning and reading skills.

Children who enter the first grade are all at a different stage of physical, mental, social, and emotional maturity. Some of the children may have had some instruction in reading, such as adequate training in auditory and visual discrimination and in listening. Some children will have come from homes where there are no books, no pictures, no crayons, and no blocks and toys. Obviously, the teaching of reading skills efficiently and economically requires some type of grouping. In one school the problem is attacked in a clinical conference held in May of each year, where the principal, teacher, school nurse, counselor, and director of school guidance meet to examine records and consider reports of medical examinations and attendance (24).

Traditionally, it has been common practice to use reading-

readiness tests as a guide for grouping children for reading instruction. In some cases mental-age scores are used as the basis. Unfortunately, the results of reading-readiness scores and mental-age scores have been used as a signal for the teacher to "wait" before instruction begins. A development point of view rather than a readiness point of view is much to be preferred. Many otherwise bright children have some reading disabilities; consequently one cannot assume that all children of the same mental age are ready for the same kind of reading instruction. Neither reading-readiness tests nor intelligence tests should be used as the sole basis for reading instruction.

Grouping for reading instruction should not be limited to the beginning years of the elementary school. In the upper grades it is frequently advisable to have small groups for instruction in reading deficiencies. These groupings can be based on the results of the diagnostic parts of reading tests which have given pupil and teacher information on abilities in general silent and oral reading. The range of the average heterogeneously grouped fifth-year class group is from the average third year to the average eighth year. In other words, the slowest pupil may be compared to the average third-year pupil and the fastest pupil may be compared to the average eighth-year pupil. Under such conditions we cannot expect to use successfully one basic reader for all pupils. In the case of nonreaders or extremely slow readers in the upper grades, special opportunity rooms and remedial teachers have been found most beneficial. Usually, however, the responsibility for instructing these pupils remains with the home-room teacher. In the case of emotional blocking and extreme lack of skills no other instruction can be given except by special individual help.

Grouping for study of arithmetic skills is just as important as for reading instruction. The teacher must constantly ask herself, "How many pupils are nearly enough at the same level so that all can profit from a group lesson?" Obviously, consideration of the social phases of arithmetic may involve larger groups than consideration of skills. The nature of arithmetic usually requires many subgroups, some of which can be helped by brighter pupils rather than by the teacher. This makes it

mandatory that large experience units be used so that pupils will find enough profitable and varied activity to pursue while the teacher works with small groups. Too often pupils have been required to keep at "busy work" in arithmetic workbooks while the teacher is giving individual tutoring.

Concluding Statement on Essentials for Grouping Children

There are no standardized sizes for groups. A group may range from three or four pupils who are learning the process of long division to a group of several hundred who have gone to an auditorium to hear a music recital. Neither are there any time limits for a group to stay together. One group may meet together for half an hour to plan a Thanksgiving program and never meet again, while another group of pupils may find themselves together at the beginning of elementary school and still be together six years later. Traditionally, groups have probably been together for too long a time. There is no reason, for example, for a slow group in reading to remain together in the first grade for an entire year.

In relation to the issue of the length of time pupils stay together, we should be cognizant of the present trend for teachers to stay with a group of pupils for more than one year. Several advantages can be listed for the policy of having a teacher remain with the same pupils for two and three-year periods. In the first place, the procedure saves time in getting acquainted with pupils and tends to objectify the data collected. A teacher who observes pupils for a short time only may often collect inaccurate, prejudiced, and superficial data. Longer periods of observation encourage teachers to withhold judgment until data can be verified. The knowledge of a pupil's progress over a period of time gives the teacher a better understanding of individual development. There is a significant saving of time in diagnosis and achievement. By being with a child for several years the teacher has an opportunity to observe changes in physical growth, emotional and social behavior, interests, and attitudes.

The grouping of children should be more than a mechanical arrangement of bringing children together. The group can be a

dynamic, vital entity having its own personal characteristics, just as can an individual child. Merely assembling youngsters together will not solve problems of social development. A teacher must help them to plan and to work out ways and means which will enable them to grow in social interaction. An autocratic teacher who permits no communication except between the pupil and herself will have a lifeless, listless, uninterested group of pupils who are developing interests only in themselves. Certainly there will be little opportunity of learning how to be a useful citizen in the democratic way of life. We should bear in mind, too, that even if it were possible to group pupils homogeneously, it may not be desirable. Only through a variety of backgrounds and differences in ability can there be produced educative diversity of opinion and attitude from which progress can evolve. Children with a wide range of academic abilities can make contributions in construction, dramatic play, music, and painting. Academic ability can be varied in a group planning some recreational activity, arranging a classroom project, or designing and executing traffic safety. •

The kind of grouping a teacher plans with her class is largely the function of the kind of information she has about her children, including home situation, cultural background, relationship to other children, and experiences that motivate action. Each pupil should be placed in a group where he can live and work most effectively and achieve his maximum of success and security. The criterion for successful grouping is the degree of progress children are making in learning appropriate behavior. Appropriate social behavior cannot be learned apart from the group; therefore, grouping is a necessary procedure for accomplishing some of the more significant objectives of education.

GUIDANCE IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Sociometrics as a System of Guidance

Although we have discussed the sociogram to some extent, we have not given sufficient recognition to the use of sociometry as a distinct and useful medium for diagnosing interpersonal rela-

tionships within the classroom and for planning ways for improvement. Therefore, in the following pages we shall consider the significant aspects of interpersonal relationships within a group and their educational implications.

A requisite essential for intelligent group guidance is a knowledge of the existing social-emotional climate within the group. Climate can be referred to as the social atmosphere or emotional tone resulting from concomitant interpersonal interaction between pupils and pupils, and between teacher and pupils. It has some relationship to the degree of acceptance or rejection by members within a group regarding each other's needs or goals. There is involved the inner private world of each pupil, as well as the *esprit de corps* of the group, influenced by motivation toward group goals which, in turn, function in some relation to the goals of the individual pupil. Within the social atmosphere of the room some pupils are secure and happy, while others are rejected and frustrated in their social participation. The social-emotional climate of a room, then, has a significant bearing on personal development and learning. Through interaction with others the child learns to know his peers, their values, and their customs and gradually extends his sensitivity to human relations. Guidance in facing, analyzing, or determining the importance of problems in social context, and solving these problems by group action, has been too much neglected in the past. Individual concern and action, as contrasted with group endeavor, have been responsible for reticence, withdrawal, frustration, selfishness, and unhappiness. Pupils need to develop the ability to appreciate others, to evaluate themselves as others see them, and to make a place for themselves in a group. Guidance toward achieving these ends means arranging opportunities for socialization to allow for the exchange of ideas, mutual coöperation, and the many interpersonal contacts which develop respect for one's fellow men.

Using the Results of Interpretation of Sociograms

Changes in the social structure of a group are usually the result of new concepts and attitudes. Guidance of pupils in the classroom can do much to create a disposition for active give

and take, a tolerance for different points of view, a capacity to live peacefully and happily with other people. This cannot be accomplished by separating children who show interest in each other because of the assumed interference with their work, nor can it be done by refusing to permit pupils to help one another. Perhaps it can be aided by arranging seating locations, or by consciously using influence on committee membership. In some cases a whole class of pupils can analyze together that they may be hurting some child's feelings. Most certainly it cannot be accomplished in terms of ability grouping, or by leaving instruction to incidental occasion or extracurricular activity alone.

Intelligent group guidance requires a thorough knowledge of group dynamics, including the characteristics and development of leadership, the causes and correction of social isolation, and finally the causes and disintegration of friendship.

What Makes a Child Popular?

Although the occasions and time of leadership vary considerably, studies of young children have shown that virtually every child acts as a leader at some time in his life. One child may lead as many as 67 percent of the social situations, while another may never lead (6). Furthermore, the picture of dominance and leadership is one of much change, according to the age of the child and the activities in which he is engaged. This is especially true during the ages of 9 and 10.

Summaries of personality traits of socially successful and socially unsuccessful children have been made from time to time as a result of controlled studies of the topic. Representative of these are the conclusions of Bonney (6). A child, for example, is well accepted and admired in a group much more for what he is and does rather than for what he refrains from doing. It follows, therefore, that any type of moral or religious education which places great emphasis upon docility, nicety, or submission to authority may be a handicap to a child's social acceptance. This supports the results of Wolf's (54) study suggesting that persistent children come from homes with a moderate disciplinary program, while those who lack persistence come from homes with

very rigid or very lax discipline. More leaders come from homes of greater freedom.

The sociogram provides a graph from which the teacher can readily see the leaders, and at the same time provides a guide for determining the reasons for the various attractions and repulsions. Tactful interviews, for example, will reveal reasons for approvals and disapprovals. One generalization will usually stand out: leadership consists in meeting the demands of the emotional, aspirational, and other values of the group. The syndrome of the popular child may be described as strong, aggressive, enthusiastic, active in recitation, pleasing in appearance, cheerful in disposition, frequent in laughter, and friendly in attitude.

When children are asked why they choose certain pupils, we can expect such typical answers as "He is always happy, friendly, and helpful"; "He sticks by you no matter what anybody else says"; "When I am in trouble he is always there to help me out"; "He always shares things with me."

Murphy (35) points out a most important implication for guidance in considering leadership qualities. In a study of these, he indicates that the emphasis should not be upon the individual but upon the situation. Leadership does not reside in a person, but in the situation which calls for certain types of action. A group should not select a leader who will make them act, but rather a leader who will help them to act. A shy boy in the classroom may be an excellent leader in a football game because he has skill and ability. A child who does not read well may be the best leader to be had in planning and executing the building of a model-airplane project. Since leadership is the result of a situation, it is possible for the teacher to arrange situations in which an isolate or near isolate may actually exercise leadership. This is the essence of good guidance.

Leadership skills can and should be developed in the early elementary school years. The first of these major leadership skills is ability to establish an atmosphere where the group feels free to make group-oriented rather than ego-oriented contributions. For the traditional task of disciplining, managing, and controlling in the leadership role there should be substituted an attitude

of helping the group to grow, discover, and diagnose its own problems. This necessitates frequent summaries and evaluations and planning for future action. The leader's function is to preserve the right of every member to present his resentments, his disagreements, his confusions, and his difficulties, and to respect the rights of others in the same manner. The leadership function of stimulating growth takes precedence over the managerial and control function.

What Makes a Pupil an Isolate?

Subtle techniques are required to discover why children are rejected by their peers. Children are much more reluctant to be honest in their reasons for rejection than they are in reasons for acceptance. Through the method of interview it is not uncommon to obtain such remarks as "He thinks he is better than I am"; "Sometimes she speaks to me but most of the time she doesn't"; "He always does as he pleases and never thinks of anyone else"; "He is stuck up and thinks he is a big shot"; "He is a bully and likes to pick on kids smaller than himself"; "No one likes her"; "She does not play fairly"; "He is too fat." When we look for reasons of rejection we sooner or later turn to the basic personality needs which are not being properly satisfied and the improper adjustments pupils have made because of denial. Isolated children usually suffer from frustration, and as a result may be listless, bored, and unresponsive. Many children are isolated because environmental and cultural impoverishment has prevented them from learning certain social skills or conformities. Some boys are isolated because they cannot bat, catch, and throw a ball. Other causes of isolation may include excessive mobility of the family. In one study it was found that in suburban areas, where there is a relatively high percentage of homeowners, 68 percent of the families had moved at least once within a five-year period (39). It is not easy to form new friendships in a new neighborhood or school unless teachers do something about the situation. Isolates frequently are of a different race, nationality, religion, or economic status than are the majority of children in the group. A low average mentality or a physical handicap is also conducive to isolation and rejection.

What Factors Are Conducive to Mutual Friendship?

Children who have many friends have characteristics similar to leaders; that is, they are neat, friendly, enthusiastic, have a sense of humor, and participate actively in recitation. It is highly improbable that an enthusiastic child would get much satisfaction from a child who is generally listless or unresponsive. If the isolate chooses anyone at all, the choice is not likely to be another isolate. Mutual friends usually do not differ much in dress, personal grooming, or social etiquette. It is conceivable that a newcomer who is naturally aggressive but is temporarily possessed with insecurity will select one of the more timid members of the group, only to develop other and more close friendships as he comes to feel more at home. Mutual friends are likely to have significant resemblance in height, weight, intelligence, motor ability, and academic achievement. The chum assumes importance in middle and late childhood. He is of the same sex and approximately the same age, likely to be in the same school and school group, from the same neighborhood and the same socioeconomic status. Although propinquity seems to be a factor for chum relationships, some similarity of interests and coordination of traits are also essential.

GROUP INTERACTION IN THE CLASSROOM

The Scope and Meaning of Group Interaction Therapy for Elementary School Pupils

In the literature of education and psychology considerable emphasis has been given to the value of "sharing" experiences in groups of elementary school children. What are the educational values of sharing? An answer to this question will at the same time define the values of certain group interactions in the classroom. Group influence on individual personality at one time was limited almost entirely to clinical therapeutic procedures in institutions for children of extreme personality deviation. Within the last several years, however, it has been increasingly recognized as a medium for the normal child and within the

prerogative of the energetic classroom teacher. Group assistance is a method of helping the child solve his adjustment problems by sharing experiences, sympathies, suggestions, and friendships within a group. In one school, for example, an attempt was made to build good group relations by assemblies held once or twice a month. The lower grades and their teachers met in the Primary Assembly to discuss problems, report progress, and plan. Another assembly was held for the upper grades to carry on the same program. It has been reported that greater unity was brought about among the groups of pupils and teachers, and many so-called school problems dissolved themselves naturally (38).

In another school a Boys' Meeting and a Girls' Meeting were held once a month, at which time "boys' talk" and "girls' talk" were carried on in the respective meetings. It has been reported likewise that such group meetings were invaluable in alleviating lavatory difficulties and in helping each child of beginning school age with his developmental learnings. As a result of these meetings a feeling of helpfulness toward younger boys and girls by older boys and girls was one of the important outcomes (36:45).

Children themselves are capable of learning the value of planning together, of using democratic procedures, of respecting the rights of others, and of giving helpful and constructive criticism. When classroom plans and policies evolve from the action of the group, they are firmly grounded and carry with them the support that guarantees action.

Group interaction is closely related to all of the phases of group guidance thus far discussed. It can be considered from two points of view. First, it can be justified by the hypothesis that although the individual can be helped through individual counseling such counseling may be unavailable; group interaction can serve as a substitute. Second, even if it were economically possible to administer individual counseling exclusively, normal adjustment could not occur without some form of group activity. The technique of assisting the individual through the group assumes that through the medium of classroom sessions the individual pupil will seek personal help from the teacher or counselor if he needs it. The assumption is also made that individual pupils can gain self-insight by evaluating their behavior

in the light of the behavior of the group, and that each pupil can gain reassurance in accepting his adjustment problems through identification with problems revealed by others in the group. A last assumption can be made that the individual pupil can gain adequate information relating to his problems through the medium of the group, and by observing behavior within the group the counselor or teacher can increase her accuracy of diagnosis (22).

Children in a group who profit most from group pressure are usually pupils of an approximate homogeneous chronological age or those homogeneous in similar problems; e.g., reading retardation. The discussions which ensue are unique for this particular group, and the gain is usually observed in increased tolerance and understanding of their own and other people's motivations. Hobbs (22) has expressed the point of view of many teachers and psychologists that psychotherapy can be used as a measure of preventive mental hygiene. It can be of particular value to that vast group of children who are on the borderline of unhappiness, who are apathetic and listless, and who have a minimum of vitality. Treatment from the individual approach is too expensive and in many cases inefficient. Furthermore, there are many aspects of psychotherapy which qualified teachers are able to use properly without waiting for a clinical psychologist or psychiatrist.

Improving Skills in Group Living

The social structure of a classroom group can be revealed by careful use of sociometry. The sociogram, for example, will help the teacher to find the isolates, the chums, and the leaders. Like any other test, however, the sociometric device can reveal only existing conditions. The task remains of determining the causes of the condition and of planning remedial procedures. The isolates, for example, must eventually be accepted; the chum relationships must be extended; the leaders must learn the skills of effective authority. The techniques for accomplishing such tasks involve all of the procedures for studying and understanding the child with which we have thus far been concerned. Much help can be offered to the child by improving the social

climate within the classroom through a conscious effort at guidance in group situations.

Although our attention even in a group situation is child-centered, the adjustment of the child usually involves others than the child himself. When we speak of techniques of developing friendships, for example, we must think of the *child* and the group. When we plan procedures for helping the child or a group we must always keep in mind the question, "Are these devices superficial because they do not reach deep sources of trouble?" Traditionally, many of the suggestions offered for social adjustment have been superficial; nevertheless, many of them provide a means for initiating treatment, and in some cases they have led to permanent adjustment.

The first essential for developing friendships is to build up a sense of accomplishment or competency. Some teachers, for example, have found it beneficial to appoint a child to some position such as monitor or as a member of the traffic squad. Perhaps it may help to ask a retiring child to sponsor a newcomer and acquaint him with the school. One teacher asked the most isolated girl in the class to do some work for her, and afterward stated she was so pleased with the girl's work that she could choose a very special treat for the entire class. Thus, in the eyes of both the girl and her classmates, she was responsible for an all-day excursion to the World's Fair. Generally, the older members of a group feel more secure. They should be given tasks and responsibilities reflecting the confidence of the teacher.

Isolated children frequently need guidance in acquiring the accepted social skills. Social skills are generally transmitted directly from parents. The child observes his parents greeting neighbors or friends, hears comments made about other people, observes examples of good and poor sportsmanship. When children have not had the opportunity to acquire the accepted courtesies, manners, and standards of the group, they must receive guidance in opportunities at school to learn them. Children need to experiment with many techniques and observe their effectiveness in social situations.

One of the most effective techniques for helping the isolated youngsters is to teach them to be skillful in playground games.

A little expert coaching provides the child with either the ability or the confidence to fit into the group activities, and thus enhances the opportunity to make friends. A study of a classroom sociogram may suggest a rearrangement of seating. George, for example, may be seated next to Harold, since George has already expressed an interest in Harold. Certainly an isolated child surrounded by a group of aggressive children should be moved. Potential friendship combinations may be put together into a club on a basis of common interests. As an illustration, a model-airplane club may be formed around Bill and his two friends. Two isolated boys may become interested in participating. Such arrangements suggest the necessity of an environment rich in play materials. Cockrell (10) found that where little or no equipment was available, undesirable social behavior seemed to develop.

Importance of Teacher-Pupil Relationships

The results of controlled social-emotional climate have shown that it is possible to modify pupil attitude and behavior as a result of guided social experience. Such studies as those of Lippitt (31), for instance, are significant because they demonstrate that individual social behavior is determined by the prevailing teacher-pupil relationships. Lippitt organized four clubs of five boys each and gave each club successive experiences with an autocratic and democratic leader during three consecutive six-week periods. The several leaders used to head each club were required to employ different leadership styles with each successive group. Records of social interaction between group members and leader, stenographic records of conversation in each club, analysis of activity subgroupings, and a running account of psychologically interesting interaction in each group were among the data collected by observers of each club session. The records showed that different leadership styles produced different social climates and resulted in different group and individual behavior. Autocratic leadership elicited either aggressive rebelliousness toward the leader or an apathetic submission to him. The style of leadership was more influential in producing group behavior than the personnel of the group.

So important are the verbal statements made by teachers in creating social-emotional climate that Withall has been able to classify them according to their influence on learning, and to use the classification as a technique for measuring teaching efficiency. His seven categories are:

1. Learner-supportive statements that have the interest of reassuring or commending the pupil.
2. Acceptant and clarifying statements indicating to the pupil the feeling that he was understood.
3. Problem-structuring statements or questions which proffer information or raise questions about the problem in an objective manner with intent to facilitate learner's problem-solving.
4. Neutral statements which comprise polite formalities, administrative comments, verbatim repetition of something that he has already said. No intent inferable.
5. Directive or "hortative" statements with intent to have pupil follow a recommended course of action.
6. Reproving or deprecating remarks intended to deter pupil from continued indulgence in present "unacceptable" behavior.
7. Teacher self-supporting remarks intended to sustain or justify the teacher's position or course of action (52:349).

The functions of the teacher as a guide for group action require that she first provide situations where such action is possible. The unit-of-experience procedure, to which reference has previously been made, provides an ideal method. The teacher generally must determine group needs, determine group and individual benefits, guide in group planning, in assignments and acceptance of responsibilities, in group activities, and in evaluations of progress. Above all, she must create an atmosphere of permissiveness, where pupils need not fear to reveal their problems lest they suffer consequences from authority or aggressive criticism from fellow group members. Only in such a climate will pupils be willing to contribute personal ideas, suggestions for resources, and proposals for solution. The morale of a group improves when the members participate in planning their conditions of work, when the atmosphere is friendly rather than autocratic, when the group develops a team consciousness, and when members of the group enjoy being together (50).

The Process of Group Dynamics: Integrating the Group

Group dynamics are present in every group to be found in the elementary school, regardless of whether the group is dominated by an autocratic teacher or whether it be self-organized, as when a group of boys play marbles on the playground. Ideally, group dynamics can best be observed in a problem-centered group where people are working, thinking, and achieving together in terms of some common endeavor. Whether the problem will be solved will depend upon its nature, how it is perceived by the group, the network of social relations within the group, and the methods of working developed by the group.

Foremost in efficient group action is the recognition of the problem. This depends on group attention to the ideas having elements that are comprehensible and within the experience range of the group, and on defining the problem clearly. Six-year-olds will have much to learn in coöperative planning even under guidance of the teacher (15). Pupil leaders of this age in a "Show and Tell" period, for example, can do little more than call names. Pupil leadership at the 6-year level will be more effective in small action groups affording opportunities such as being the leader of a game, acting as chairman of a committee for a party, doing constructive work, or leading the discussion when it centers around concrete materials or objects. Seven-year-olds can do something more than merely call names of group members. At this age the pupil leader can remind this group of the purpose, evaluate suggestions, and help the children seek more suggestions before evaluating. With young children, especially, pupil leadership is dependent upon the delicate role played by the teacher. Pupil leaders are likely to work more efficiently if the teacher stands by to help in appraising and making decisions. Teachers can help encourage leaders by assisting them in getting started; by making sure, with the use of specific questions, that members understand the purpose of the planning period; and by recalling a situation or giving an explanation.

Even with the youngest elementary school children there should

be much opportunity for group planning in which the group can arrive at a decision to act, isolate prejudice, and make attempts to be objective. Older children should be guided to distinguish relationships between parts of a question, to adjust ideas to the interests of the group, to establish hypotheses, and to designate individual responsibilities. The teacher can always aid by keeping note of the ideas, by writing suggestions for the group, or by recognizing that some record is to be made of ideas which can be evaluated later. For example:

TEACHER (*third grade*): How can we keep our schoolroom clean? Who has a suggestion?

CHILD: We shouldn't throw paper on the floor. (Bill attempts to write on blackboard.)

TEACHER: Do you want me to write and act as secretary, Bill?

BILL: Yes, thank you. (Continues on as leader.)

The teacher encourages pupils to become "group-conscious" by suggesting differences and similarities; by directing their questions to other pupils or to the leader; by sensing misunderstanding and using conflicting ideas creatively; by encouraging individual responsibility for group welfare. Groups in action will always need guidance in evaluating the relative merits of all suggestions, combining ideas or rejecting others, or by asking a child for a further explanation of suggestions. Pupil leadership will often be lacking in ability to effect decisions, to settle disagreements, and to seek common agreement or acceptance of a proposal. Teachers can learn much about group dynamics by retiring on occasion to see how children will meet a situation, or to determine what further skills need to be developed in co-operative planning.

The sociogram is useful as a guide in organizing the class into committees for unit activities. Many types of committees are possible in the elementary schools, ranging from committees handling classroom routine and management to committees for gathering information in the library, community, or museum. The number of committees should be determined through coöperative teacher-pupil planning. Each child should have the opportunity to work with close friends, with pupils in the same

(as well as different) socioeconomic groups, and with children with the same or very different mental capacity or talents. Although every child should have experience as leader and follower, wise guidance should determine the role in clarifying his problem, in deciding the most efficient procedures for solving it, in making his contribution to the whole class project. Guidance should be more indirect than direct because of the learning values in teacher-pupil planning. Skill in leadership is developed only gradually through a variety of experiences and situations. Such training should not be limited to the natural leaders; the isolates are frequently those who will profit most by it.

Giving Special Attention to Intergroup Education

When teachers follow up the results of sociograms which reveal certain types of social structure in their classroom group, they will sooner or later find the real reasons for certain cases of isolation, cliques, and chum relationships. These cases may exist because, by pure chance, a child (or children) may be born into a religious, racial, economic, or cultural group that is denied the rights, privileges, and courtesies enjoyed by the majority of Americans. The same exclusive groups characterized by stereotyped thinking that are found in the community are also found in the classroom. Some of these groups are distinguished by presence or absence of skin pigmentation, religious beliefs and customs, neighborhood location, possession of money or lack of it, and between those thought to be bright and those thought to be dumb. There is scarcely a school in the United States where group differences of some kind do not exist. Rejection or clannishness because of religious, racial, economic, or cultural reasons is directly opposed to the ideals and principles of equality and opportunity embodied in American thinking and planning.

Many studies have been made of the kinds and degrees of groupings in communities and schools. Generally, it has been found that as early as the second grade there exists a prejudice between white and Negro children, although it does not reach its peak until about the second year of high school. Koch (28) found that white children tended to prefer their white classmates to their Negro ones from the second grade and increasingly

so with increase of grade through at least the tenth year of school.

Guidance workers are well aware that feelings of acceptance and rejection in elementary school children develop because of environmental conditions, and that prejudice can be removed only to the degree that a child is able to project himself into the feelings of other people. The task of education is to extend the sensitivity of respect for the feelings of others, to reduce tendencies of prejudgment based on stereotyped thinking, and to increase the capacity to live and work together in a cosmopolitan environment (28). The accomplishment of these objectives cannot be realized alone by exhibiting the products of racial or national cultures in a classroom interest corner; by studying people of foreign lands to the neglect of cultural differences within the immediate school neighborhood; by carrying on units of work on Africans, Hebrews, Indians, or Spanish-Americans; by guest speakers; or by motion pictures. American democratic ideals are learned only through group life in classrooms, clubs, or extracurricular activities where children live together, build skills for working together, think together, and act together. They cannot be accomplished through homogeneous grouping by ability, skin color, religious preference, or socioeconomic status. Nor can ideal intergroup relations be created quickly. Guidance is required from the first through the twelfth year of school. In the second grade, for example, the immediate community can be used to reveal diversity of occupations, religions, tastes in food, types of recreation. Democracy does not require a divorce from individual preference; rather, it requires a respect for the feelings and rights of other people, providing these preferences do not interfere with the common welfare.

Traditionally, our emphasis in intergroup education has been upon nationalism and political rights, and has been taught chiefly by the recitational methods whereby the pupil can demonstrate to the teacher that he understands the lesson, accomplishes the work assigned, and thus is rewarded by good grades and promotion. The new emphasis should be upon the moral and mental-hygiene values. No pupil, for instance, with racial, ethnic, and religious prejudice can be well adjusted. Usually a pupil

with such prejudice seeks escape from his problem of real or fancied feelings of insecurity by blaming other people. A dislike based upon the opinion that another is of low or inferior character, dishonest, undependable, inefficient, immoral, and so forth, may be a mechanism of adjustment reflecting one's own weakness (19).

True intergroup education does more than develop tolerance. Tolerance often connotes an inferiority-superiority relationship contrary to a democratic ideal. Rather than mere tolerance, there must be developed real sympathy and understanding involving appreciation of differences and the desire to get along with other people. Neither is an education based upon emotion alone a desirable outcome. Emotion may be a powerful force for good, but at the same time it is also a potential force in creating prejudice. Knowledge of facts, plus the ability to analyze and evaluate—in short, the scientific method—is the best to encourage.

Group living and group activity, especially in the form of pupil committees, are of particular value in teaching children how to work together, how to cooperate, how to share, and how to solve problems together. Only careful guidance, however, can help to develop feelings of self-worthiness, security, and sense of belonging.

Promising Approaches to Intergroup Education

Useful to the teacher is an outline of some of the promising practices in intergroup education presented by Edman and Collins (17), who list 11 common approaches, with their advantages and disadvantages: (1) the contributions, (2) people are alike, (3) the study of prejudice, (4) the precept approach, (5) the democratic procedure, (6) ideals versus practice, (7) vicarious experience, (8) school activities, (9) guidance, (10) personal contacts, (11) community participation.

The contributions approach considers the "great men" who are outstanding as members of a minority group as well as the folk contributions and ethnic and religious customs of a cultural class. Such a method tends to reinforce concepts of cultural categories; and although it encourages the individual child to identify himself with the best in a particular group, it tends to sharpen and

maintain existing boundary lines. True, children are interested in such distinctions, and much material is available; yet it is essentially factual (much of it false) and leads to faulty generalizations about groups. If used correctly it can, however, familiarize children with their own community and may help them to recognize the existence of intergroup conflict. Rather than emphasize differences in groups, it would appear a much more satisfactory approach to study traits common to all men and to realize that such differences that do exist do not constitute an inferiority. This method could counteract racial myths and erroneous notions as well as inculcate objectivity. Our information, however, is still inadequate and requires much interpretation.

Closely related to both of these points of view is the study-of-prejudices approach, which encourages the investigation of the reasons for stereotyped thinking and the effects of prejudice and discrimination on personality and social structure. Opportunity to study radio, motion picture, and newspaper communication presents itself with such a method, thus giving weight to current problems of democratic society. Certain minority groups may be hurt unless such a method is tactfully handled, and the usual subject matter will have to be adapted to the younger half of the elementary school population. Such an approach would easily include the "precept approach," which investigates the American way of life, clarifies democratic principles, and analyzes democratic ideals. This method can easily deteriorate, however, into verbosity without affecting everyday behavior in personal relations. When integrated with practice in democratic procedures in classroom routine and student government, the approach is effective. Closely related to democratic classroom routine should be an attempt to establish coöperation and mutual respect for all children in the school. In other words, democratic principles of living and working together for mutually desired goals, with each person appraised according to his individual qualities, should characterize school life. This requires absolute impartiality and democratic procedures by the teacher, who consciously attempts to control the environment in order to multiply coöperative opportunities.

When the ideals-versus-practice approach is used, the American

dilemma of accepting standards without living up to them is considered. An honest, realistic picture of the community is presented and studied. Accompanying the procedures would be the vicarious-experience approach, which attacks stereotyped thinking through the use of books and dramatics. Children are afforded the opportunity to identify themselves emotionally with members of the minority groups. Guidance is especially necessary however, because many books still give false or sentimentalized pictures of minorities. The guidance approach aims to make children feel secure, worth while, and confident even though they are members of a minority group. A logical method for doing this is to foster pleasant experiences with members of other groups. The persons contacted must be regarded as individuals with some interesting skill or knowledge, and not necessarily as representative of their group.

In the community-participation approach, use is made of the community as a source of education. The artificial barrier between school and "real life" is removed. Thus the school program is enriched, and the progress of intergroup relations is facilitated. Such an approach needs careful and cooperative planning so that community participation will help rather than hinder the school program.

Guiding Principles in Intergroup Education

Improved understanding of and by all peoples is important in the solution of the social, economic, and political problems of the world today. Because the solution of the American problem of intergroup understanding is essential before much hope of American influence can be felt in other parts of the world, we must concentrate on methods of improving our cultural-emotional climate at home. There is danger and threat of national disintegration in the continued growth of segregation of peoples on a religious, economic, or racial basis. Children in the classroom should have training in democracy that comes from living, working, and planning together. Only through daily association under careful guidance can children of diverse backgrounds learn to understand and accept one another. Children are not born with prejudiced attitudes and stereotyped thinking. These are

acquired through education; therefore, by means of education they can be prevented or removed. Group guidance designed to help pupils socialize their attitudes, habits, opinions, and judgments through the problem-solving approach has a unique contribution to make in intergroup education.

The Therapeutic Possibilities of Play

In Chapter 4, play was discussed as a projective technique from which much about the child could be learned. Because of the impossibility of distinguishing between play as a diagnostic and therapeutic medium, some mention was also made of the therapeutic possibilities of play. We shall now discuss the use of play as therapy in a more direct fashion. The most promising description of this technique has been made by Axline, a student of Rogers, who advocates a nondirective approach. With this approach, play is said to release the curative forces which exist within each pupil. Through skillfully conducted therapy, maladjusted children find the capacity to work out a constructive adjustment to difficult problems.

As a kind of catharsis, play presents an opportunity for a disturbed child to express his feelings. In the nondirective type of play the same theory of treatment applies as it does in nondirective counseling, as discussed in foregoing pages. We shall not, therefore, repeat the theory here, but rather begin with a discussion of the treatment.

A child is placed in a playroom where, with complete permissiveness, he has access to a large variety of toys and such materials as finger-paint, clay, dough—anything he wishes to put his hands on. As the child plays with puppets, for instance, he projects his thoughts, actions, and language to various roles he himself assigns to each puppet. Because he knows he shall not be blamed for anything the puppet does or says, he goes deeply into the complexities of his family relationships. As the therapy progresses, the puppet plays are likely to become shorter and occur less frequently, and gradually drop out all together. In some cases speech problems, such as stammering, stuttering, baby talk, repetitive language, and garbled language, have been corrected.

In practice the therapist remains in the playroom, not as a

supervisor, teacher, or parent substitute, but rather as an equal to the child, who respects the patient with sincerity and honesty, and who encourages the child to relax and share his inner world with her. The therapist develops a warm, friendly relationship with the child, establishes a feeling of complete permissiveness, and is alert to recognize expressed feelings. She reflects those feelings back to the child in such a manner that the child can gain insight into his behavior. The therapist maintains faith that her client can work out his own problem eventually, and attempts to make the child aware of his responsibility in accepting such faith.

The whole theory of nondirective play therapy has practical schoolroom application. The teacher, for example, can find numerous opportunities in which pupil and teacher can work together on equal terms, in which the pupil is given opportunity and responsibility to make choices and to institute change. When the rules of expected behavior have been determined by pupil and teacher, the pupil may develop self-reliance, dependability, and initiative in learning to respect them. If a teacher respects the dignity of a child and treats him with understanding, kindness, and constructiveness, she is helping the child himself to develop the ability to direct his own destiny.

Putting Group Assistance into Action

Just as in counseling the individual pupil, the teacher must have a personal philosophy and attitude toward her pupils if she is to be successful in using a group to assist the individual. Nondirective therapy or client-centered therapy can, for example, be applied in the group situation. Effective nondirective therapy requires a deep and abiding confidence in the ability of most pupils to solve their own problems. It requires a type of faith in human nature to make and abide by decisions acceptable to oneself and to society. The absurdity of pursuing this philosophy to the extreme, however, is illustrated in the application of an activity or an interview-therapy technique to young children. The ability of any given group, as well as individuals, to withhold or absorb hostility and aggression has definite limitations. A group of young pupils will have its own capacity to tolerate aggression

or hostile atmosphere. Where the limits are exceeded in a group of children, there will result such tension and anxiety that hyperactivity, rowdiness, or wanton destructiveness will make the group uncontrollable. These factors are so important that wise choice must be made in the selection of children suitable for group therapy (44).

When the group is brought together each member will have had an interview with the teacher, who has prepared him to become generally acquainted with the other members of the group. Preliminary interviews will have also promoted increased confidence in the leader. Out of the group there will emerge patterns of behavior and problems which would never have arisen with one child alone. Children tend to stimulate one another through their presence, through what they say, and through their interaction. Indifferent attitudes must be modified if the group is not to disintegrate completely with emotional tension and anxiety. Diffuse hyperactivity, for example, may have little therapeutic value beyond *release of tension*. The success of treatment depends upon the skill and sensitivity of the leader to provide orientation from the level of catharsis to that of constructive action. In a group there will exist a kind of catalytic effect of one patient upon another which will be reflected in the emotional quality of what is said and done. The leader will try to catch this emotional quality as one key to any change which might be occurring. He must be sensitive to six or seven pupils instead of one, and delegates his leadership to one of the group when this is possible. Above all there must develop an absolute spirit of permissiveness. Only under such conditions will members feel free to express themselves or to understand the feelings of another member of a group.

The strongest incentive for improvement in a group situation is the desire to be accepted by the group. Sometimes the most stubborn problems will be cleared by the attempts of the child to alter his behavior and attitudes in order to gain acceptance by his peers. In a group situation properly guided there is usually a growing warmth toward, and approval of, each of the members, and accordingly a mutuality of feeling and understanding. Pupils who hitherto have withdrawn in discouragement and resentful-

ness begin to perceive themselves as worthy persons perfectly capable of having opinions of their own. When the individual begins to compare his feelings and attitudes about himself with the feelings and attitudes of the group, he gains a self-confidence previously undiscovered. It is good for an individual to form a common bond with other people. Not only does it sustain one's own ego, but it encourages the acceptance of responsibility for the welfare of others.

Evaluating the Results

For the evaluation of the effects of group action the group should turn attention toward itself. This technique has been used in certain centers of group dynamics (26). One way for a group to collect information about itself, for example, is to use a group observer. The observer is a member who has the responsibility to watch the group process. As a human mirror the observer notes the difficulties the group gets into when working through a problem. These he points out to the members, who were too busy to identify them during the discussion. He reminds the group of what happened, even encourages the members to analyze why it happened as it did, and acts with the group in suggesting ways in which the members might act differently next time. The leader may select a different member of the group each time to serve as chairman for the core of the session after the leader has started the discussion. The leader then observes and evaluates the results. Foremost of the points to be observed is the degree to which a member is feeling acceptance by the group. A partial solution to adjustment is made when the pupil sees he is no longer different from the other members of the group. Does this member discuss his ideas freely and consider them objectively?

The analysis of verbatim protocols has been used with success as a technique of evaluation (22). A gradual decrease in negative statements toward self and others and a corresponding increase in expressions of self-acceptance should denote progress. In the case of therapy for a group of retarded readers, progress could be assumed with a significant gain in scores on a standard reading test as compared with a control group not taking the treatment.

Other techniques of evaluation could well include sociometric techniques, initial and terminal interviews, initial and terminal self-appraising essays, and pretesting and posttesting.

Concluding Statement on Group Interaction

Group guidance cannot logically be distinguished from group interaction except in terms of emphasis of purpose. Both are concerned with helping the individual in the adjustment process, especially in developing the power of self-direction. If pupils assume a morbid attitude toward personal problems, they find new hope when they discover that problems they believed to be peculiar to them alone are common to a group of their peers. Frequently, because of common feeling and sympathy, a pupil is able to discuss a problem which would have been intolerable in a private interview. The feeling of isolation and of "being different" vanishes in the company of others who share similar feelings. The fact that participation within a group is permissive and voluntary lessens the desire to withdraw. Furthermore, group reinforcement saves the child from feelings of guilt for being hostile and bitter to the people and conditions which are causing the maladjustment. Ventilation of feeling through group discussion brings release of tension—a kind of catharsis through which the child is able to divest himself from conflicts and emotions. The acceptance of the child by other children and the leader in spite of personal weakness and attitudes helps the child feel that he is worthy of being loved.

A Reassessment of the Discussion

The entire teaching process is one of formulating desirable objectives; studying pupils' behavior to determine the degree of accomplishment of these objectives; and studying the causes of lack of normal progress, using these causes as a basis of future plans for teaching. Every guidance worker, especially the teacher, should be aware of the basic human motives; that is, the motives within a pupil which drive him to action. All pupil behavior is the result of an attempt to adjust to these basic needs. Maladjustment, then, has a cause or causes which can be traced directly back to an attempt to satisfy needs. Treatment will consist prin-

cipally in permitting the child to satisfy his needs in a normal, socially acceptable manner.

Experimenting, Evaluating, and Replanning

Experimenting, evaluating, and replanning—these three procedures are processes which continue throughout the guidance process. When any type of treatment is administered, the guidance worker will want to know, "Did the behavior disappear or become modified in a desirable direction? Is the treatment successful, partially successful, or a failure?" Concise, complete, objective answers to these questions are never available. In some cases we have standardized tests which may give general indications of the status of success in some phases of the child's growth, but for the most part the teacher must use tests of her own making which give results to be evaluated by her own judgment. She may, for example, find it necessary to arrange a classroom situation and note the behavior of a formerly rejected child to see if he makes progress in winning a place in the group. She may administer standardized achievement tests to note any improvement in learning in the curriculum areas. She may note increased interest in activities of the school, or an increased zest for living.

The outcomes in any given case can be seen only as the development of the whole child is considered. The progress or lack of progress of a pupil over a long rather than a short period of time is basic. Then, too, the treatment may result in new behavior that will throw light on the child's original problems. An early hypothesis, for instance, may have to be completely revised. The only sure way of knowing whether hypotheses have been formulated correctly is to try corrective measures to see if improvement can result. If there is no improvement, either the hypotheses or the treatment will have to be changed. During the period of treatment the guidance worker should keep a careful journal of the progress or lack of progress. Such a record should contain an account of each interview and each significant observation. When standardized tests are available to measure the objectives, comparable tests should be administered at the beginning and after a period of treatment. Frequent checks must be made in

guidance because some pupils who make marked gains on tests during a period of treatment will tend to return to their old habits unless they are carefully supervised. Evaluating the results will be certain to require replanning and new planning. A teacher cannot honestly say that any problem has been completely corrected. Constant observance and careful planning will always be necessary. It is important to regard all the activity in terms of the whole personality development of the pupil. The implications, for example, are always much broader than the acquisition of a limited area of subject matter or the mastery of certain skills. Neither the classroom teacher nor the specially trained counselor should attempt to apply treatment for difficulties that are entirely outside his experience. These well-meaning attempts frequently only elicit new problems.

SUMMARY

The purpose of guidance in groups is not exclusively an economical one to be substituted for individual guidance. Group guidance has many purposes, among them, to help pupils achieve self-direction through coöperating with the group; to provide a deep and ever-broadening range of social contact and intercourse accompanied by social sensitivity and coöperative attitude; to offer therapeutic benefits for such children as the shy and submissive or the overaggressive and hostile. The greater part of the socializing process will occur in the classroom under the guidance of the teacher, who provides a variety of activities in which the pupils are directed toward positive, constructive purposes.

Traditional attempts to facilitate group guidance can be found in the school-grading system, promotion system, and attempts at homogeneous grouping through the use of standardized tests. In the case of nonpromotion, pupils who repeat grades do little if any better the year they repeat a grade than they do at the first attempt. Then, too, the school with low retardation rate is significantly higher in the achievement level of most subjects than is the school that tends to retain low-ability pupils. Furthermore, that teaching is simplified by classification into homogeneous

groups is questionable. Because of these criticisms many schools are adopting the nonfailure or continuous promotion systems. Homogeneous grouping schemes have more or less ended in failure except when educational objectives have been narrowly defined and measured by standardized tests of achievement in subject matter. When a single trait is used as a criterion, it is impossible to obtain a homogeneous group.

Modern grouping methods have been discussed under (1) grouping according to the organismic age, (2) the sociometric technique for grouping pupils, (3) flexible grouping for learning the skill. There are no standardized sizes for groups, nor have time limits been set for a group to be together. The group, just as an individual, should be a dynamic vital entity with its own personal characteristics. The kind of grouping a teacher plans with her class is largely the function of the kind of information she has about her children, including home situation, cultural background, relationship to other children, and the experiences that have motivated action.

The sociogram is a useful device by which the teacher can readily locate the leaders, cliques, and isolates. From the results she can plan to bring about desirable changes in group structure which will require both individual and group guidance. The sociogram can serve as a useful guide in organizing the class into committees for unit activities.

The important aspects of intercultural education should not be ignored in group guidance. Improved understanding of and by all peoples is important in the solution of the social, economic, and political problems of the world today. Training in democratic living requires guidance in living, working, and planning together with all the types of people who constitute our democracy. Only through daily association under careful guidance can children of diverse backgrounds learn to understand and to accept one another.

Group guidance cannot logically be distinguished from group interaction except in terms of emphasis of purpose. Pupils often find new hope, new ambitions, and new goals when they find themselves members of a group with a common feeling and sympathy.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. How can a sense of the democratic process be developed in the classroom through guidance?
2. List the factors which contribute to differences in social behavior in childhood.
3. Are you in favor of the promotion system in the elementary school? Why? (Define your terms.)
4. What is your definition of "homogeneous group"?
5. Contrast modern grouping methods with traditional grouping methods.
6. What are the advantages and limitations of grouping according to an average of chronological age, mental age, achievement age, carpal age, grip age, height age, weight age, reading age, arithmetic age, etc.?
7. How can sociometrics be applied toward a grouping system of pupils?
8. Does any form of grouping nullify a recognition of individual differences? Explain.
9. Give an example of "group dynamics" in action.
10. What are the advantages of using the phrase "intergroup education" rather than "intercultural education"?

CHAPTER 9

Guidance of Children Who Are Different

AN EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY CONCERNING EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

Our Responsibility Toward the Exceptional Child

With emphasis primarily upon the welfare of the normal, pupil-personnel services should be provided for all boys and girls. The "preventative," rather than the "remedial" or "curative" approach, is best. Although the schoolroom is the appropriate setting for the education of the exceptional child, his proper handling does involve the specialist, who must consider the teacher a significant team member and must also coöperate with other specialists.

Who is the exceptional child? The answer can be found only in statistical treatment and in terms of deviation from the average. He is exceptional only if he deviates from the average in his emotional, social, mental, or physical aspects of personality. Above-normal children have received little attention except in the case of intellectual superiority. Other types of superiority have traditionally been regarded as talents. Below-normal children have been considered retarded in intelligence, emotionally disturbed, or physically disabled.

Guidance in the elementary school is concerned principally

with the self-concept held by a child. Because self-concept is especially significant to the handicapped child, the classroom teacher must have some understanding of how it is formed. It is she who, if referrals are to be made, will be the primary person to initiate them.

When exclusion from the public school appears to be advisable, the child may be classified as a clinical or institutional case. From the point of view of guidance in the public school we should not consider the technical issue of who shall and who shall not be permitted to attend the public school. In our discussion we will make reference only to those exceptional children who have not been excluded from public school attendance. Furthermore, because so much has been said in foregoing pages regarding the emotional and social deviate, we shall direct our attention generally to the physically handicapped, and to those intellectual deviates who are intellectually superior or intellectually dull.

It is the author's viewpoint that all possible effort should be made to keep an exceptional child within a group of his peers. If the physically handicapped or the nonclinical, noninstitutional type of mentally handicapped needs to be taken from the classroom for special training, he should be returned to his regular group as soon as possible. This is the only way we can expect normal, natural life adjustments to be made. Otherwise, we shall be defeating our objectives of developing feelings of belongingness, self-esteem, security, and confidence.

Few would deny that the exceptional child is entitled to equality of educational opportunity, but a disparity between theory and practice continues. Fortunately, society's attitude toward the handicapped has improved. We have advanced from a philosophy of superstition to one of treatment, rehabilitation, and prevention. In primitive societies handicapped children, especially the sickly and crippled, were doomed to die as infants. The culture of some African tribes called for the witch doctor to drive away evil spirits and diseases. In our society, however, we are rapidly assuming the attitude that many of the disabled, especially the physically handicapped, can accomplish most of the ordinary work of man. In other words, in terms of potential adjustment and achievement many of them are not handicapped

at all. Interest was seriously aroused when the report of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection was published. The Security Act of 1935 and its later amendments have forced the question to public attention. Many of our public schools have specially trained teachers and clinicians who are helping the handicapped child to learn academic and mechanical skills, and to adjust in an emotionally and socially desirable manner among a nondeviate group. Even when specialists are available, however, regular teachers must learn to provide maximum possible opportunity to learn and adjust within the classroom.

Every state has shown interest in the disabled through the organization of societies for crippled children, service clubs and other community organizations, and activities of special programs by local, county, and state educational organizations. Nevertheless, rejection of such children from educational opportunities is demonstrated in many areas through lack of facilities for special services, actual exclusion of the handicapped from school, and lack of adequate legislation and financial support.

The same general objectives of education that apply to all children apply to handicapped children: self-realization, desirable human relationships, economic security, and civic responsibility. In spite of differences, desirable human relationships cannot be established without friendship, coöperation, and a sense of belonging. These basic factors are difficult to achieve if the child is excluded from the regular classroom or if he is accepted apologetically. Segregation is not a necessary concomitant of the education of the handicapped. Handicapped children have a right to expect educational opportunities, though not necessarily identical opportunities, that will permit them to develop to the limit of their capacities. Their education should not be considered apart from the general educational program.

Principles of Teaching Exceptional Children in the Elementary Schools

The first principle of teaching exceptional children is to recognize similarities rather than differences. All children need food, shelter, and clothing; they want to play (even though physi-

cal play is sometimes impossible); they need to be recognized, to be loved, and to feel secure just as do normal children. Because the handicapped child is subject to all the adjustment problems of children who are normal, the principles of guidance for him remain the same. In the case of physical deviation the real handicap usually is psychological and social; thus no field should be closed to him except where actual danger to himself and others is involved. Without using his handicap as an alibi, he should be permitted to seek and plan his own destiny and make his own decisions and judgments realistically. He should be led to understand that he is not different from other people in many respects, and that he is free to develop skill for himself in ways peculiar to the needs of his own limitations. We should assume that he is well adjusted unless there is evidence to the contrary. It is unnecessary to pity or be oversolicitous; instead, it is wise to develop independent habits of work and study which lead to normal behavior and adequate achievement.

A second principle is to give him his education in as natural an environmental setting as possible. By natural environment is meant the kind of environment in which normal children are educated. The handicapped and the normal must learn how to live with one another; it follows, therefore, that the handicapped should be educated in the public elementary school whenever possible. We cannot segregate the handicapped in special schools for six to twelve years and hope that learning to live with other people will occur automatically when they find work in the vocational fields. Such a policy does not exclude the need for special education or special services. Many handicapped children must attend special classes in a protected environment which affords such facilities as transportation, accessible lavatories, shortened schedules, special equipment. Some must receive their entire elementary education in such a specialized environment. To them our present thesis does not apply. The majority of handicapped children, however, may be assimilated into regular classes after treatment in special classes. It is to them that special guidance must be given. The child should remain in a special group just as long as intensive and specialized care is essential to his optimum progress.

In many situations a divided program has been found to be most successful. A child, for example, who partially sees or hears may receive from his special teacher appropriate help in adjustment and instruction in speech correction or lip reading. For an example of a divided program for the exceptional child we may cite a plan used in Long Beach, California. A child, for instance, in the sixth grade who is exceptional in superior intelligence is permitted to go to the library one day per week, where he has special help in a small group. Here he makes a careful and diligent study of things not considered in his home room. He reads myths, folklore, legends, scientific research, or translations of foreign books. He then takes the information back to the classroom, where he talks it over with his classmates. The child remains in his home room most of the time, and when he leaves he does so with the understanding that he is to return with something beneficial to everybody (14).

In Oakland, California (31), half-time teachers, called elementary assistants, go to two schools in a day, where they assist children of an IQ of 90 and above who have difficulties either emotionally or academically. Usually the assistant does not start with the remedial work; she begins by watching the child in the classroom, with conferences, or with a therapy play period to try to ascertain where his difficulties lie. Gradually she becomes a remedial teacher and helps the child gain his first steps in reading. Later she goes into the classroom and helps the teacher in a program for the child in his natural group. In such a program there is no regular remedial class, where pupils stay for that work, but the elementary assistant acts as a guide to the teacher for future work. The child is not segregated any longer than necessary.

It is becoming increasingly frequent to have itinerant teachers going from school to school, where they work with small groups and individual children. This is common practice with the speech correctionist, and it may also be utilized for children receiving other kinds of attention, such as physical therapy. Teachers who have the handicapped under their supervision need better understanding of guidance and health procedures. The teacher would feel more confident, for example, if she were trained to recognize

the changes in conduct and activity of a child from one day to another, and if she knew the proper techniques of recording observations and passing them along to the specialist.

Adequate training of personnel is essential if the exceptional child is to be properly understood. This involves a study of his abilities, his talents, his weaknesses, his mental and emotional incapacities. The total responsibility for educating the exceptional child should not be shifted to the special teacher and the clinician. Teachers should be trained to be aware of symptoms—the signs of present and possible future disability—and of the attitudes which emerge both on the part of the handicapped himself and of those who come in contact with him. Children with mild degrees of crippling, brain injury, hearing impairment, and vision impairment may never be taken from the regular classroom. Some of the more severe cases may leave the regular school for varying periods of time, but should be returned as quickly as circumstances permit. Others may leave the regular room for short periods during the day or week to receive special help. A grave responsibility rests with the regular teacher to adjust the school program so that the disabled child may progress academically. This may require such aids as glasses, hearing devices, crutches, and wheel chairs, or special materials such as books in special print and recording machines. School furniture may have to be removed or adjusted; even special lighting and special desks may have to be provided.

The Personality of the Exceptional Child

The handicapped child is liable to all the adjustment problems of children who are physically normal, but has the added hazard of either an atypical physical organism or an atypical mental capacity. As a group, crippled children, for example, show personal socioeconomic and emotional adjustments over and beyond those which would otherwise occur in the usual process of the child's development. Because of physical handicaps children develop psychological and emotional disturbances which especially interfere in the learning of the subject-matter areas. Because of sensitivity to differences, handicapped children may develop inferiority complexes because they are never given opportunity for

success in the regular activities of the school. Frequently emotional release is sought by truancy or acts of delinquency in and out of school.

It is essential that the teacher and school administrator have a clear understanding of the psychological effects of a physical handicap. Included in this understanding should be the important principle that the child is influenced by what is expected of him by those around him. If he is met with pity and oversentimentality, he will soon learn to expect this to the point where it affects his learning. Furthermore, he may acquire an attitude of self-pity and its accompanying avoidance, reticent and withdrawn behavior, and numerous rationalizations. Undue admiration for special accomplishment may also cause abnormal feelings of superiority. With possible failures which occur to most people, negative tensions accompanied by frustrations and maladjustments may also result.

Guidance is especially concerned with diagnosis of school adjustment. In the case of the physically handicapped, psychometric techniques are only partially successful. Modified clinical approaches used by the teacher are also necessary in the diagnostic process. We should give recognition to each handicapped person in his own right, uninfluenced by stereotyped attitude toward the handicap as a definite "type." Deviation should be accepted in its proper place in the total pattern of the child.

The Family Situation and the Exceptional Child

In the eyes of people surrounding him the disabled child is an exceptional person, and being exceptional makes him a person of unusual importance. If properly controlled, this fact can be an asset to him; on the other hand, it is a definite liability if the child learns to depend upon other people for economic support, for making decisions, for recreation, and for most of the needs of life. Physically defective children can be a great burden in time and money when society is expected to care for and educate them. Directly or indirectly, a parent receives much criticism from his social group for having such a child dependent on society. Generally this develops in the parent a feeling of guilt and resentment or a feeling of ostracism for having produced

such a child. Consciously or unconsciously, then, the parent rejects the child; or perhaps, on the other hand, either from genuine sympathy or from reaction to his own guilt, he may recompense the child for his misfortunes. Whatever the feelings of the parents, the child is certain to be affected by them, sometimes to the point of serious frustration.

When parents have feelings of resentment and guilt, the child will share them. Guilt on the part of the parent is a result of the parent blaming himself for the tragedy of disability that has befallen the child. The child in turn blames himself and his parents, occasionally to the extent that hostility toward the parents is openly observable. When hostility is suppressed, anxiety and guilt are generally the outcome. That disabled child is fortunate who has parents who are able to accept him for what he is, neither rejecting nor compulsively overprotecting him.

The sickly child who has been permitted to return to the public school after a period of illness has special problems at home. It is difficult, for example, to convince a parent that the child has recovered sufficiently from an illness to participate in normal play and study activity. Overprotection, and its accompanying personality mechanisms, is the result. It takes wise guidance based on sound information to help a convalescent child readjust to life situations. In some cases he must be carefully restricted from exercise and from academic pursuits. He must be watched for signs of overfatigue.

Usually an exceptional child who has been given special treatment to the point where he has sufficiently recovered to benefit from public school attendance will have to be returned to exceptional parents. Currently it is a frequent practice to give parents and the child cotreatment. When parents will cooperate, such a method can provide permanent success.

THE MENTALLY EXCEPTIONAL CHILD

When Is a Child Mentally Exceptional?

The mentally exceptional child may be described as one who deviates or varies from the normal in his ability to learn. The variations may include the mentally gifted and the mentally retarded as well as those with a special talent in a definite field

such as art, music, or mechanics. In the case of extreme mental retardation institutional care is needed; thus, we shall exclude a discussion of such cases here. According to a classification by Terman (34), very superior children have an IQ of 120 or higher, and those below 70 are definitely feeble-minded. Also according to Terman, we can expect that one child out of a hundred will have an IQ of 130 or better, and that one or two out of a hundred will have an IQ of 70 or less.

For purposes of classification through definition we may refer to the California Education Code, which makes special provisions for the education of mentally retarded children. This code subdivides the *mentally retarded* into two groups: (1) the upper level group or *point one* (those who may be expected to benefit from special education facilities designed to make them economically useful and socially adjusted), and (2) severely mentally retarded group or *point two* (those who will benefit from special educational facilities designed to educate and train them to further their individual acceptance, social adjustment, and economic usefulness in their homes and within a sheltered environment (13). Rather than direct our discussion here to the feeble-minded child, we shall be concerned with the slow learner. Likewise, we shall not speak of the genius, but rather of the mentally gifted child.

The Slow-Learning Child

The majority of slow-learning children are still in the regular classrooms of the public schools. Frequently the slower learner is a "marginal case" and likely to be overlooked because he does not deviate sufficiently from the norm to be given special attention. He is the child who does not respond to the ordinary school curriculum and to the ordinary methods and procedures of the classroom teacher.

The slow-learning child will usually respond when situations are presented in a manner suitable to his interests and abilities. It is quite possible, for example, that he will not do well in an intelligence test. But even children with IQ's below 70 may be bright in social adaptability, mechanical manipulation, or artis-

tic pursuits. Furthermore, it is wrong to assume that a pupil is equally slow in all intellectual activities. He may, for example, be able to work arithmetic problems, spell well, and write legibly, yet be unable to read. We may summarize with the following possible characteristics. The slow-learning child:

1. Has the same basic needs as does the normal child.
2. May be physically below average.
3. Is more likely to have defects of hearing and vision.
4. May reveal slow adjustment to school through his case history.
5. Rarely shows quality of leadership.
6. Shows poor choice of companions and poor judgment in social situations.

How to Locate the Slow Learner

It has been customary to locate slow children by administering a group intelligence test. However, it is increasingly recognized that educational backwardness and maladjustment are not the sole causes for not liking school, for playing truant, for making trouble, for not learning to read. Other contributing conditions are emotional tension, malnutrition, poor health, poor eye-sight and hearing, and unpleasant and inadequate home conditions. Only after all other factors have been studied should the mental capacity of the child be attributed to slowness or maladjustment.

The first step in locating the slow learner is to examine the cumulative record and compare past with present progress. Results of past achievement tests should not be considered too seriously in concluding that the pupil is below average in mental capacity. The most significant factor in determining the slow learner is overagedness. A child who is two years or more older than his classmates may possibly be a slow learner. Even in these cases, however, investigation should be made of eyesight and hearing as contributing causes rather than low mental capacity. Note, too, the presence of underweight or overweight, excessive fatigue, malnutrition, and the pupil's dietary habits at school

and at home. Improving his health may not increase his mental ability, but it will eliminate an important factor which may contribute to backwardness. Continuous experimentation in placing the pupil in various types of school situations, in varying methods with different types of subject matter, and in giving him special attention in instruction will contribute more to making a good judgment on "slow learning" than any standardized test. We should assume that no pupil is natively a slow learner until all other causes of functional slowness, such as ill health, emotional disturbance, poor home and other environmental conditions, and lack of experience, are all carefully considered and appraised.

Principles of Guidance for the Slow-Learning Child

Slow-learning children have all the basic needs, just as do normal and bright children. The same aims and objectives of teaching serve as guides. Broadly speaking, these may be listed here as self-realization, desirable human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. Requirements for accomplishing these objectives are exacting; that is, curriculum activities must be suited to abilities and limitations, continuous experience of success must be provided, and vocational skills must be begun early. The school life of the slow pupil should be organized so that most of his learning occurs in a group of pupils of his own age who have not been segregated on the basis of mental ability. This does not preclude the possibility of leaving the home room for short periods for special instruction. All counselors, subject-matter specialists, speech correctionists, and other personnel who work with these children should work either under the direct supervision of the home-room teacher or in terms of plans made with and approved by her. The matrix of instruction and guidance will be found under the regular classroom teacher, although the teacher is not an expert in all phases of these procedures.

Slow learners require short and simple methods of instruction based on concrete experiences with concrete materials. The principal difference between a slow and bright pupil is that the bright pupil can think in abstract terms more efficiently and,

therefore, economically. The bright child can profit more than his slow companion by verbalized instruction and by abstract symbol. The slow learner needs to ponder more with concrete materials and first-hand experiences. It follows, therefore, that he will profit a great deal from the use of audio-visual materials of instruction, such as the excursion, dramatization, the museum, contrived experience, and still and motion pictures. The slow learner also requires more practice and drill to retain what he has learned than does the brighter child.

THE USE OF DRILL IN TEACHING THE SLOW LEARNER. Too long have we used the method of teaching slow learners by drill and repetition. Like all children, they require meaningfulness and understanding in what they learn. Methods of giving slow children workbooks and mimeographed materials requiring long periods of repetition and drill should be discontinued. Even more than their brighter companions, these children must be taught the meaning of what they do—and meaning is not developed by drill. Slow learners should be given every opportunity to participate in such school-wide enterprises as assemblies, school newspapers, safety patrols, campaigns, and intramural games and sports. Uniform textbooks, uniform class demonstration, uniform instruction, even some forms of uniform class discussion, are not appropriate for either the slow or the bright pupil. The experience unit of instruction appears to offer the most promising procedure for exceptional children. By use of it, varied activities can be found in which each child can profit according to his own capacities and interests.

GUIDANCE IN THE ACTIVITIES OF SLOW LEARNERS. Physical defects, such as poor vision, partial hearing, malnutrition, restricted physical activity, and so on, have been properly recognized and procedures taken for correction. Although special planning and guidance should be given to the quality of experience of the slow learner, school activities of all children should be vital and meaningful, thus evolving from dominant pupil purposes and pupil interests. For slow learners, however, there must be greater similarity between what they do in school and what they do or see out of school. Slow learners require concrete materials; it is from these materials and activities with them that

concepts are formed. Abstract knowledge is meaningful only as it is based on concrete concepts. More time must be spent with the slow learner in the formation of concepts. Slow progress can be expected in developing generalizations and abstractions from these concepts. With young children practically all learning must be on the concrete rather than on the abstract basis. Some older slow children also require continuous concrete instruction. With all slow children the transfer from the concrete to the abstract is gradual.

Every effort should be made to bring slow children into first-hand contact with the world about them by taking them on excursions, by bringing them still and motion pictures, by using exhibits and objects. Bring them into first-hand communication with people—the policeman, the postman, the fireman, the aviator, or the pioneer. These people can be invited to school to answer questions, to demonstrate or to explain what is seen in pictures, rather than to lecture or merely tell about their experiences. Participation in community activities such as clean-up campaigns, community beautification and improvement projects, or safety campaigns are excellent first-hand experiences for these children.

GUIDING THE SLOW LEARNER TO ACQUIRE FUNDAMENTAL PROCESSES. Slow learners can be taught to read, but we should not expect them to read as well as the average or bright pupil, regardless of the efficiency of teaching. Reading instruction for the slow learner should be kept a highly functional experience, always closely related to curriculum activities or to the natural interests of the child. Slow-reading children learn to read in the same way as do other children. Requirements for both include an orderly, systematic development of reading techniques based on the principles of reading readiness, vocabulary acquisition, word recognition, careful selection of reading materials, and preparation of supplementary reading.

Teaching arithmetic to the slow learner requires all the principles stated thus far in regard to concrete experience. Constant referral to concrete objects and social application is necessary. Slow learners can be expected to master processes slowly. Concentration on a few fundamental processes and topics, always

clothed in practical social application, is more beneficial than constant abstract drill on a wide variety of examples. The arithmetic workbook and textbook should be used for occasional reference and supplementary drill rather than as constant daily materials of instruction. Repetition is beneficial only for maintaining what must not be forgotten or in learning what is new. Original learning in arithmetic occurs only with actual experience with concrete objects in a concrete social setting. Although the principles of learning are essentially the same, the transfer from the concrete to the abstract is even a slower process in arithmetic than it is in reading.

The Gifted Child

"The genius in every man is the untapped resource of our country. All of our children are equally worthy of attention and should have equal educational opportunities. To accomplish this end we must identify talents early, encourage all pupils, and provide to each the opportunity for optimum development" (3:1).

Teachers with overcrowded classrooms and an overloaded curriculum have been forced to give instruction by the large-group method. This means that a child with an average or superior intelligence proceeds smoothly from year to year without individual help. If time for any individual instruction is found, it is generally reserved for the slow-learning child. Even in cases of special provision, emphasis has been directed to the subnormal rather than the gifted child. But the widespread belief that intellectual precocity is pathological, that exceptionally bright children are usually unhealthy and likely to become physical or mental wrecks if their intellectual interests are at all stimulated, has been disproved.

The intellectually superior are as numerous as the dull and mentally defective; yet in an alarming number of school systems their existence is ignored. Since there are approximately $1\frac{1}{2}$ million children in our schools with IQ's over 120, this is an unfortunate situation, especially when we realize that from this group most of our leaders will—or should—come. The number of children having IQ's of over 130 comprise about 1 percent of our elementary school population. As more and more children

enter our elementary schools, there will be a leveling-off process which will bring standards of education downward.

The Characteristics of Bright Children

Bright children think differently than normal and subnormal children in that they display more intellectual curiosity, form generalizations with fewer first-hand experiences in building concepts, and think more rapidly. Because they form and retain concepts quickly, they are able to make the transfer from concrete to abstract sooner than the average and, accordingly, display more agility in acquisition of subject matter and the fundamental skills. If the regular school work appears to be insignificant to them, they will be intelligent enough to find other outlets of activity. In many cases, therefore, intellectually superior and gifted children may do poor work in school because the studies bore them. This in turn may develop behavior difficulties and social maladjustment. Because gifted children usually take a position of leadership, this role often leads them to a lonely life. Frequently they seek companionship of older children because their thinking and interests are more mature than those of their own chronological age. It is not unusual to find these children often impatient and intolerant of the less capable.

The bright, or superior, child probably began to talk earlier than usual, acquired a more extensive vocabulary, and showed special ability in putting sentences together to represent connected thought. Although he begins school at about the same time as do normal children, he learns to read sooner. When measured by intelligence tests he will gain one month of mental age with each six months of chronological age. This increase starts immediately from birth, so that by the time the rapid-learning child is 6 years of chronological age he has a mental age of 7. At 12 years he has a mental age of 14. The gifted child (IQ at or above 130) has an increase even more significant than this. Bright pupils are generally healthier, heavier, and taller than others of their own age. They attend school more regularly, have better qualities of a social nature, and generally come from superior homes. The gifted pupil excels in all his school work; he

is modest and well-adjusted socially, even though in the upper elementary school he has knowledge and acquisitions which surpass those of children two or three grades above him. When measured by general academic-achievement tests he is as much as 44 percent above other children of his own age (34). A majority of gifted children come from homes of a professional status; thus, they are provided not only a favorable heredity but an equally favorable environment in which can be found books, magazines, travel, and educated friends.

"Any educational system is, among other things, a great sorting-out process. One of its most important goals is to identify and guide able students and to challenge each student to develop his capacities to the utmost" (32:75). The recognition and appraisal of talent and the encouragement of an individual to plan his life's work requires an accurate cumulative record. The earlier this record begins in the elementary school the more effective can counseling be in the secondary school. Extensive and continuing accumulation of biographical data on each student, comprehensive and repeated testing to provide objective evidence of aptitudes and abilities, are all essential for wise counseling of students.

A Differentiated Curriculum Is Best for Bright Children

Just as in the case of slow learners, it is essential that rapid-learning children have a suitable curriculum. The attempted accomplishment of this objective through segregation or double promotion has met with failure. With the abolishment of grades, a possible change in the future modern school, double promotion even if it were desirable would be impossible. Rushing bright children through elementary school on the bases of acquisition of subject matter accomplished generally by the memorization of textbook content is most detrimental. Because bright children memorize answers easily, their capacity is not challenged through a superficial, verbalistic, recitative type of curriculum.

The most logical procedure for providing for the superior and gifted child is to differentiate the curriculum. This is done

through providing a sufficient variety of books and reference materials in which bright children can do independent reading and research, through providing a variety of activities which will challenge the pupils, and through emphasis on expressive and creative work. The intellectual capacity of bright pupils can usually be challenged by literature dealing with science. Both boys and girls can find topics of scientific nature which deal with almost any interest, whether it be home economics or interstellar space.

Among the important desirable curriculum activities are those which provide social interaction where bright, average, and dull children can learn to play and plan together. Such activities will help children to recognize merits and superiorities that others possess. The bright child needs to learn to accept responsibility, to respect the potential talents of other pupils, and to tolerate the academic shortcomings of his slow-learning associates.

Teachers can help these gifted pupils by testing them prior to instruction and by offering individual guidance. Unfortunately, the intelligence test does not enable us to locate all gifted children, because in some children expression is blocked by strong emotion due to the lack of satisfaction of such personal needs as affection, belongingness, and a feeling of success. Neither will special abilities in art, music, or writing show up in an intelligence test. Gifted children should not waste time in needless repetition of skills they have mastered. The time ordinarily required for this phase of learning can be advantageously used for developing worth-while projects, for creative writing, and for original research. An unusual opportunity for enrichment lies in guidance in reading. Unless the gifted child is properly guided in reading, he may neglect several areas of experience which are associated with wholesome growth and individual development. Guidance in reading activities requires an analysis of each pupil's interests, the discovery or development of a predominant interest, a direction of book choice in accord with mental maturity, and a tactful direction of research reading in connection with school activities. Some teachers may find book lists assembled according to maturational levels in ability and interest a valua-

ble guide, but these can never be used in lieu of individual guidance.

Most Frequent Difficulties in the Bright Child's Adjustment

Although several difficulties of adjustment of the bright child have already been noted, parental relationships, the topic of such significance in guidance, need to be considered. Danger lies both in parental recognition and lack of recognition of mental superiority in children. Too frequently parents forget that mental precocity is not accompanied by commensurate social or physical development. Children are rushed into associations with children of a greater chronological age, where they are expected, because of mental superiority, to adjust socially. Often they are ignored or rejected by the older group of pupils, who have different interests on the playground, in their choice of radio programs and motion pictures, and in their social activities. On the one hand, the child may develop feelings of inferiority because his interests and activities are not specifically recognized by his group, and on the other, he may develop a boastful, conceited personality because of unwise adulation and emphasis by adults.

An even greater difficulty exists for the gifted child whose precocity is not recognized by parent and teacher. Lack of recognition of superiority may lead to antagonism toward the school as an institution and to poor study or work habits because of a lack of stimulation of classroom work. When superiority over associates is marked, one-sided personality development may result because of lack of normal social activities resulting from parental intervention. Gifted children do not like to play with children of their own chronological age or mental age. When a gifted child of 6 displays the mental ability of a 9- or 10-year-old, a real problem ensues. Even though he may have physical superiority to other 6-year-old children, he is not by any means as physically and socially mature as a 9- or 10-year-old. Bright children need opportunity for participation in extracurricular clubs of a special interest, such as a camera club or a book club.

An important and noticeable difficulty with superior children is the acquisition of a conceited attitude. Fortunately, the major-

ity of gifted children adjust normally, but this does not preclude the fact that some of them display an attitude of superiority which interferes with their social acceptance. When children discover that they have exceptional abilities, they may easily become conceited unless they are helped to develop the responsibilities that their capacities permit them to assume. The experience-unit method now frequently used has eliminated some of this difficulty because of the opportunity for varied activities and interests. An egotistical attitude, plus the characteristics of a "loafer," plus an attitude of cynicism, all are conducive to the development of a repugnant individual who will be rejected by his classmates; in turn, he will develop even more striking antisocial ideals and behavior.

Abraham calls our attention to "six pieces of unfinished business with the gifted child" (2). These he describes as follows:

1. Semantics: What is meant by "enrichment"? "segregation"? "homogeneous grouping"? "acceleration"? "creating an elite"? These are but a few of the words and phrases used to enlighten the public on the problem of educating the gifted.

2. The unrecognized gifted child: Among these should be counted the gifted woman, the emotional school drop-out, the financially handicapped student, the gifted physically handicapped child, the bi-lingual child, the gifted migrant, the professionally gifted who go into the world of work before they reach their potential in academic work.

3. The penalty for "being able": The gifted find it profitable to strive for the average to avoid penalty of being given more work (in quantity and difficulty).

4. Need for more respect of non-conformity: We should encourage the "intellectually rebellious," the unique person, the inventor.

5. The field of research: We need experimentation to gather data for such problems as, What is enrichment? What is the relationship of aptitudes of the gifted? How can the gifted be motivated? What are the attitudes of the gifted? What are the results of sociometric study of gifted groups? In what ways have the gifted adults been neglected? What are the costs of the educational program?

6. Mental health of parents and teachers: The attitude of parents toward their gifted children; the relationship of the gifted toward their siblings; the teachers' attitude toward the gifted child; the place in the family of the gifted child (2).

THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

The Physically Handicapped Classified

A child is physically handicapped when he is prevented by a physical condition from full participation in childhood activities of a social, recreational, or educational nature. These defects can be roughly classified as visual, hearing, speech, locomotor, and defects of general health such as heart disease, kidney disease, diabetes, or asthma. With all of these defects we must adjust the treatment (environment) to the child, rather than expect the child to adjust to the treatment. If the rights of these children to be educated are respected, it will take the combined and coöperative efforts of medical, social, educational, and home agencies to help the child to live in a happy and effective manner.

Guidance of the Visually Handicapped

Importance of Helping the Child to See

Because the eye is the most frequently used organ by which the child collects information, achievement in school will be conditioned by his eyesight. Not only may defective vision have detrimental influence on school progress; it may also have an effect upon the child's adjustment to his school, his playmates, and even his family. In a democratic society, where promise of free education is given to all, we must make special provisions for those exceptional children who are handicapped by vision, in order that they may profit from instruction to the fullest extent of their abilities. It is the partially seeing child with whom the classroom teacher will be most concerned, because the totally blind must be taught in a special school. The partially seeing child is different from the normal child only in that he needs print of a size he can see and will need special aid in learning how to develop and use his other senses, particularly his sense of hearing, to supplement his limited vision. In the majority of situations it will be necessary to provide equipment for the partially seeing child to be used in his own rather than in a special classroom. Even in those school systems where remedial attention

can be given in a special class, the child should be admitted to the public school as soon as it is believed that he can be successful there.

Surveys and estimates by the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection (36) place 20 percent of all children as having eye defects. This would mark one child out of every five as needing special attention. About a fifth of these defects can be corrected; of those remaining, one fifth are totally blind and the rest are in the partially seeing group.

Who Are the Visually Handicapped?

The visually handicapped can be roughly classified into three categories: (1) children with minor visual defects, (2) children with severe visual defects, known as the partially seeing, and (3) the totally blind. Guidance workers are particularly concerned with the correction of minor defects and with aiding the partially seeing child. For example, a large percentage of parents are not aware that their children need glasses, and some of those who are aware of it do nothing toward correction. It is the responsibility of the school to initiate and follow up visual examinations. Nor is the problem solved when glasses are provided. The task remains to supervise their use.

Teachers will find no extremely sharp breaks between the visually defective, classified as correctable in regular grades, and the partially seeing, or between the partially seeing and the blind. Fortunately, however, the average teacher can learn to detect common symptoms and to use simple eye tests from which she can select cases for special examination. Potential candidates for sight-saving classes may be selected from four types of cases. The first type is classified in terms of the amount of defective vision. A standard of vision poorer than 20/70 in the better eye after correction has been made with competent diagnosis is recommended for the sight-saving class. This standard means that an object can be seen at 20 feet which normally can be seen at 70 feet. Children recommended for Braille classes are selected at the limit of 20/200 in the better eye after correction. The final decision in any case should be made only by a competent ophthalmologist.

A second type of child recommended for the sight-saving class is he who has progressive myopia. This child has progressive difficulty in seeing print or objects. His eyes are bloodshot, and he must hold books and materials near his face in order to see at all. If proper safeguards are provided, and if the condition is discovered early enough for the child to be given sight-saving benefits, the condition can be checked. If permitted to continue, total blindness results because the retina is torn loose by the strain of trying to reach the focus of the image.

A third type of child eligible for a sight-saving class is he who has a noncommunicable disease of the eye. Included, too, is the child who has had a physical disease which has affected the vision. One such condition, for example, is that known as "central blindness," caused by an early childhood illness that produces a prolonged high temperature and results in a series of small fragments of scar tissue dotting the lens of the eye and shutting off vision. These scars cannot be removed or diminished. Glasses will not help; rather, they may actually detract from the ability to see. Only observation and time will tell whether such cases will progress to total blindness (4).

The fourth type is of much importance to the teacher because these cases require only temporary enrollment in sight-saving classes. These cases include children recovering from eye operations, weaknesses from such diseases as measles, and cases in which the eye muscles require reëducation.

How Are the Visually Handicapped Found?

The eyesight division of a school system usually is a phase of the health program. Under this program it is almost universal practice to use the Snellen Chart as a screening device. The teacher can use this chart and refer all children with the slightest defects to the school nurse or to parents. In many schools, children are given the telebinocular test (9) to discover cases of inability to read. The test is given for visual efficiency to any child whose vision appears to be a handicap to learning. The purpose of the test is to discover the possible presence of certain different types of ocular difficulties that can be corrected or alleviated. The examination is better than the Snellen Chart be-

cause, in addition to myopia, it indicates hyperopia, astigmatism, verticular muscular imbalance, strabismus, faulty vision, and depth and color perception.

Regardless of these tests, the regular classroom teacher should always be on the alert for cases of possible eye defects as well as eye disease. Hathaway has made a useful list of signs of eye trouble in children, as follows:

SYMPTOMS OF VISION DIFFICULTIES

Behavior:

1. Attempts to brush away blur; rubs eyes frequently; frowns; distorts face.
2. Frequently trips over small objects.
3. Blinks more than usual, cries often, or is irritable when doing close work.
4. Holds book or small playthings close to eyes.
5. Shuts or covers one eye, tilts or thrusts head forward.
6. Has difficulty in reading or in other school work requiring close use of the eyes.
7. Unable to participate in games such as playing ball.
8. Holds body tense or screws up face either for distant or for close work.
9. Sensitive to light.
10. Unable to distinguish colors.

Appearance:

Red-rimmed, crusted, or swollen eyelids.

Repeated sties.

Watery or red eyes.

Crossed eyes.

Complaints:

Dizziness, headaches, nausea following close eye work.

Blurred or double vision (21:178).

The Sight-Conservation Class

For the more serious cases of the visually handicapped there can profitably be established as part of the regular school system a special sight-conservation class. Ideally pupils should spend a certain amount of time in such a class under a special teacher

and be permitted to return to the home-room class to participate in discussion, creative drama, music, and committee planning and reports. Qualifications for entering such a class should include such factors as (1) vision between 20/70 and 20/200 in the better eye correction, (2) serious progressive eye difficulties, (3) disease of the eye or body that seriously affects vision, (4) eye operation (particularly the removal of one eye) necessitating readjustment, and (5) crossed eyes or other severe muscular irregularities.

After admittance to these classes the child is given a thorough examination with at least two follow-up examinations during the year, preferably by the school eye physician. Classes should be small, with generally not over 15 members, so that special attention can be given to each child in such matters as periods of time for reading and rest, proper lighting, and size of print. Considerable attention is placed upon the wearing of glasses and instruction in the proper care of eyes and glasses.

The classroom walls should be colored in a light color of dull finish, with two buff shades at the center of each window, one rolling up and the other rolling down. Electric lights are to be used on even slightly darkened days, carefully shielded, with the rays directed toward the ceiling and then downward throughout the room. Sight-saving materials include pencils having large extra-soft leads, drawing pens with soft points, and the use of India ink only. The books are printed in 24-point type; that is, the letters are a third of an inch high. All writing paper is cream-colored and has heavy ruled lines one inch apart. All pupils are taught to use the typewriter on eye-saving yellow and aqua paper. The typewriters are of a special model with large type.

Regular Classroom Procedures for Aiding the Visually Handicapped

The majority of classroom teachers will find the responsibility for sight-saving methods placed on them, because only the larger school systems are fortunate enough to maintain special sight-conservation classes and teachers. Teachers must usually do their own testing, make their own follow-up in getting parental or community support, and use their own methods in helping the

child. Eye defects are often overlooked in children because the Snellen Chart generally permits the far-sighted child to pass and because the near-sighted child is a good enough reader not to be a problem. Too much emphasis cannot be placed on the necessity of thorough examination and detection.

Emphasis should be directed to saving the sight of children even after correction appears to give temporary relief. This means that much of the learning of partially seeing children will be auditory. They should, therefore, be taught to listen. Today it is possible for them to listen to a wide variety of talking books, to recordings, and to educational broadcasts.

As with any handicap, the visually handicapped child needs special guidance toward emotional adjustment. This comes through a sympathetic, understanding teacher who does not give special consideration because of the handicap, but controls the activities which guarantee success. Treatment within the regular school and classroom is preferable. Since this is impossible in most cases because of time and expense, the child is sent to a special room for instruction; nevertheless, he should return to the regular class as soon as possible after special-class tutoring. Special tutoring may be necessary during out-of-class training. The child must be taught to depend upon his ears; others reading to him aloud will help. Permit him to move freely about the room as necessary. Teach the child to use the typewriter; excuse him from written work; encourage him to share with others the information he obtains by listening.

Guidance of the Aurally Handicapped

Who Are the Aurally Handicapped?

Aurally handicapped children include the totally deaf, those known as the hard of hearing, and those who have just a slight hearing impairment. We can make no absolute line of demarcation, however, between the hard of hearing and the deaf in terms of amount of hearing by any method of testing. The teacher must be guided only by the decision of the examining physician in each individual case. Those definitions set up by the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf are useful:

The deaf: Those in whom the sense of hearing is nonfunctional for the ordinary purpose of life; the hard of hearing are those in whom the sense of hearing, although defective, is functional with or without a hearing aid. . . . The deaf are those who have never learned language incidentally, in the ordinary way, in the way the normal hearing child picks it up from his environment, usually, unconsciously. The hard of hearing are those who, in spite of their hearing handicap, did learn language in just this unconscious, casual manner, like the normal hearing child (30:102).

Audiometer tests do not distinguish groups because some of the deaf may have more sound perception than some of the hearing. We can, however, depend upon a psychological distinction because it is quite evident that the deaf have never learned language in the normal manner, while the hard of hearing have learned language by the same general means and patterns as do those with normal hearing. The acquisition and use of language, then, has a significant role in defining who is deaf, hard of hearing, or impaired in hearing. A deaf person does not react understandingly to spoken language, while the hard-of-hearing person is one who reacts to spoken language, providing the source can be brought within his hearing range either through a loud voice or a mechanical device.

Personality of the Aurally Handicapped

Are there personality differences between children with an aural handicap and those with normal hearing? Children of school age with an aural handicap are not seriously handicapped in physical agility, nor do they show many more emotional disturbances than do their contemporaries.

A child with any type or degree of loss is a bewildered child, and as the degree increases he becomes more and more confused. This is not surprising, since he often thinks his teacher gives one direction, but sees his classmates doing something else. His energies are constantly drained in trying to keep up with his classmates. Anything in which he can excel and win approbation becomes desirable activity regardless of teacher approval. A child with impaired hearing may appear to be inattentive, careless, indifferent, and impolite. Because he may be able to hear better

on some days than on others, his hearing defect is not always suspected. Because he hears some pitches or tone levels better than others his behavior and responses may vary. In many cases, too, the hard-of-hearing child may be regarded as mentally slow because he does not comprehend what is asked of him. Accordingly, he is frequently ignored at home and at school. Rejected or neglected, he slowly withdraws from the best of which he is capable.

How to Find the Aurally Handicapped Child

As a preliminary screening test the teacher can soon learn how to administer the "conversation test." After chalking off a distance of 20 feet between the examiner and the child, use a normal tone of voice and ask the child such questions as "What is your name?" or "How old are you?" The child either answers the question or repeats what you say. At the same distance the examiner then whispers the question. Accuracy of 50 percent on this test indicates that the child's hearing is good. Children who can hear only when they are from 4 to 6 feet away indicate hearing difficulty. Any hearing loss at less than 20 feet should be cause for further complete examination by an audiometer. The watch-tick method is also frequently used as a screening device.

Examination of hearing by the audiometer requires that each ear be tested separately with three trials at each of the points on the scale from low to high tones. Separate testings are made for air conduction and bone conduction, and the results of each of the readings are recorded. When aural conditions fall below 15 decibels in any two tones of the speech range, the child has impaired hearing. When decisions are being made on admittance to special hard-of-hearing classes, the final judgment is made after all possible corrections, such as removal of wax from the ears, removal of tonsils and adenoids, and the correction of all other possible etiological conditions have been made.

Besides these more formal methods of finding the pupil with defective hearing, the teacher should use informal methods of observation in detecting common symptoms. When a pupil fails to respond, when he habitually says "What?", when he cups his hand to his ear, tilts his head, or assumes a peculiar posture

when listening, the teacher's suspicion should well be aroused. Mouth breathing, running ears, earaches, and buzzing sounds in the ear are often accompanied by a hearing impairment. As we shall point out later, speech defects, high-pitched or expressionless voice, lack of adequate flow of language, and a reticence in speaking to people are also common symptoms of defective hearing. Failure to progress in learning to read, poor oral speech, poor spelling, and incorrect interpretation of questions may also be caused by poor hearing. Attention to corrective hearing will frequently help to solve such personality maladjustments as listlessness, lack of interest in group activities, sensitiveness, aloofness, and suspiciousness.

Guidance of the Aurally Handicapped

After the aurally handicapped child has been located, there is much that can be done for him. In the first place, every teacher should know how to use the report of the audiometrist, through which she can become acquainted with the type and degree of loss in each ear. Just knowing the children within the room who have aural impairments is an important step toward proper guidance procedures. Recognizing the specific hearing losses, the teacher can establish the correct relationships with her pupils because she will better understand their problems and how they can be helped. Much of this understanding can develop out of teacher-pupil interviews in which the teacher learns more about how the child hears, what disturbs him most, and how he feels about his handicap. It helps a child to tell him he must learn to use his eyes by watching closely the face and lips of his teacher or classmates. The teacher should stand where the child can see the movement of her lips easily, permit him to sit in the front of the room near the window, speak distinctly to him, and encourage him to make a study of lip reading. A teacher who encourages a pupil to look to her for help will learn to be attentive by watching for cues. Always speak distinctly to the child, give attention to the correction of speech defects or incorrect pronunciation of words, and make wide use of visual materials. Little things are important to the aurally handicapped child. For example, the teacher should stand with her back to a darker area with the light

on her face so the child can see her countenance clearly. She should be sure she has the attention of the child before she begins speaking.

The teacher should arrange that periods of close observation of her are not too long and that the child is given sufficient opportunity to work on his own initiative to a degree which will foster a sense of self-reliance. He should be provided an opportunity to participate in the activities of his group, but always in such a way that he may see the lips of co-workers.

Lip-Reading Classes as an Aid to the Aurally Handicapped

When a child cannot hear well, his means of communication are greatly enhanced by learning to read lips. Although this method has been used for many years in certain schools for the deaf, only recently has it been used with the hard of hearing, who make rapid progress by combining some hearing with the visual impressions of lip reading. Ideally, the child who is handicapped in hearing should be instructed by a specialist for two or three periods a week in his regular school. In smaller schools where full-time specialists are not available, a teacher with training in methods of speech reading can teach part time with a regular group of pupils and part time in lip reading.

Special guidance is often necessary for handicapped children who require special training in speech reading. These children should be made to recognize their good fortune in having the opportunity to receive such help. Much can be done, too, in preparing the class to accept these pupils as one of their group. With proper guidance an aurally handicapped child should have no feeling of inferiority.

Guiding the Child with the Speech Handicap

The Need of Guidance in Speech Correction

Estimates vary concerning the number of our elementary school children who have serious speech defects. Some would place the number at 10 percent of our school population (19). Two decades ago it was placed at 1 million by the White House Conference (36). Most of these cases are sufficiently serious to be beyond the

realm of the activities of the average classroom teacher and will need, therefore, clinical facilities. Until clinical facilities are available, however, there is much the classroom teacher can do. Suggested procedure will be discussed later.

The number of speech-handicapped children exceed in number all other types of handicapped individuals, such as the deaf, blind, crippled, mentally retarded, sickly, and so on. Although it is less time-consuming, less expensive, and less demanding in terms of elaborate facilities than other phases, speech reëducation is usually the last item to be added to a school system's plan of special education. Children with speech defects are handicapped in making normal progress in learning, especially in learning to read. In reading-disability cases, the incidence of speech defects is greater than among average readers. Furthermore, long-continued speech disorders are conducive to personality maladjustments which may, in turn, require special treatment. It follows, too, that a person who carries a severe speech defect along into adulthood may be seriously handicapped in attaining and maintaining steady employment in a vocation of his choice. Finally, the real need for speech reëducation develops from the humanitarian principle that each individual should have the opportunity to live a happy and a normal life with the confidence that he shall be given the same consideration as his fellows by both the school and society.

The Role of Diagnosis of a Speech Handicap

Diagnosis in speech correction is a process of studying the symptoms of the defect in relation to known possible causes. As with other personality traits, a positive, definitive diagnosis is impossible, yet without it correction of speech defects can be nothing more than an incidental hit-or-miss attack. Because in itself it does not cure, diagnosis can be justified only as it contributes to the process of correction. Early and thorough diagnosis can prevent either physical or psychological damage to the child. Some cases of voice disorders, for example, have an organic basis and are difficult to distinguish from functional voice defects. Without proper diagnosis psychological harm can also be done; for instance, in handling hard-of-hearing speech as if it were

simple baby talk, or in treating infantile perseverations in a postoperative cleft-palate case as if they represented cleft-palate speech when in reality the soft palate is adequate. The primary benefit of an adequate diagnosis, however, is in the prevention of wasted time and effort. The following main steps are necessary in careful diagnosis of a speech defect:

1. Diagnosis should begin with a detailed study of the speech defects exhibited.
2. It should include inspection of the specific structures of the speech mechanism for evidences of malformation, injury, disease, and habitual non-use.
3. It should note any evidences of improper functioning of the central nervous system, particularly as to the sensory and motor control of the structures involved in speech and the higher associative faculties.
4. It should look for more general bodily conditions and diseases which might be causally related to defective speech and evaluate the degree of general physical maturation.
5. It should attempt to evaluate the individual's native ability and the degree of his present mental maturation and educational achievement.
6. It should summarize his personality traits as evidenced by his attitudes toward himself and his defect and his adjustment to others at home and at school.
7. It should include consideration of his home environment and family background as well as of heredity factors that might influence his speech defect.
8. It should include a routine check on the possibility of a hearing loss.
9. It should proceed with an attempt to ascribe the speech defects exhibited to some cause or causes to which they can be proved to be directly related on a cause and effect basis or, if this is not possible, on a highly logical basis.
10. It should end with the formulation of a program of treatment and/or speech training as indicated by the findings (25:52).

Diagnosis involves a selection of pupils who need speech correction. As with other handicaps, most of the primary responsibility for selecting cases for further treatment will depend on the classroom teacher. Perhaps this is one of the strongest argu-

ments for requiring all candidates for teaching certificates to have had at least one course in speech correction. In most situations the classroom teacher can be trained to recognize all but the borderline cases. The teacher, of course, should not be expected to determine whether the pupil has a lateral lisp, a cleft palate, the etiological factors of a stutter; but she can detect that something is wrong with a child's speech and that he is not understood. The judgment of the home-room teacher, who knows her pupils because of many hours of association and study, may be more accurate than that of a specialist, who is expected to screen 300 or 400 children in a few hours. In the two or three minutes a specialist has to spend with each child, she may not find that particular sound which is difficult for him or detect periodic stuttering. Even children themselves may provide pertinent information about the difficulties of another pupil. Children in speech classes may become so aware of speech deviations that they can name others who need help.

Fortunately, a large proportion of children with speech defects will not need a thorough diagnosis before special training is given. In stubborn cases, however, of even minor defects, the child should be examined by a speech pathologist. The function of diagnosing such cases should not be left to the regular classroom teacher or even to a skilled speech correctionist.

Classification of Speech Defects

Defective speech differs conspicuously from an accepted way of speaking, and assumes significance as it interferes with communication. It is often difficult to distinguish between speech that is defective and that which is merely slovenly or below average standards. Usually, however, speech defects can be classified as stuttering, cleft-palate speech, problems arising from a hearing loss, defects occurring because of cerebral palsy, vocal speech disorders, disorders of vocal quality, disorders of articulation, and foreign dialect. A broader classification would include functional speech disorders, organic speech disorder, and emotional disorders. A detailed discussion of the characteristics, causes, and treatment of these disorders would take us far afield.

Guidance of Children with Speech Defects

Difficult decisions are required in helping children handicapped by speech defects. Should the classroom teacher help the child whose speech differs markedly from that of his classmates? Ideally the speech pathologist and the clinical psychologist should diagnose and prescribe, while the speech correctionist and counselor should carry out the treatment suggested. But even under these ideal circumstances, the teacher remains the principal figure because of her intimate association with the child. The teacher can help the child immeasurably by following directions, by providing a beneficial environment, and by evaluating results. In most schools the entire responsibility rests with the teacher. In any case, without her coöperation and support little improvement can be expected.

A youngster whose speech deviates from the normal will soon come to think of himself as different. In many instances both teacher and classmates attach to him a label of "stutterer," "lisper," or "baby-talker." Unless a child can be made to feel that he *belongs*, that he is *normal*, he will continue to feel and behave in a deviated manner. When attention is directed entirely to the speech defect, the child's oppressed sense of isolation is magnified to abnormal proportions.

All the principles of effective guidance must be applied to the child with the speech handicap. The teacher must know if an onset of baby talk is occasioned by an attempt to maintain status in a home where a new baby has arrived. She should know that a child who tries too hard or who breathes too deeply is merely increasing tension which may only aggravate his stuttering. Impatience, verbalized or silent, always increases rather than decreases the conditions of the defect. Punishment by disapproval or ridicule only teaches the child to avoid situations in which he must participate with speech.

Guiding the group to accept, tolerate, sympathize, and aid is an important function of the home-room instructor. The greatest punishment a child can experience is the ridicule and rejection of his classmates. All the speaking situations should be enjoyable to the classroom teacher and pupils. Everyone's contribution is

important. There is no rush of time, no deviation in grimace, stutter, or vocal expression, extreme enough to warrant disparaging attention.

Above all, the teacher should understand that excessive timidity, overcompensation, unorthodox aggression, and nonparticipation of a child handicapped in his speech are only the mechanisms of adjustment the child has found. A child with a speech defect possesses all the needs that are required by other youngsters. He needs praise, a feeling of self-worth, the experience of progress and achievement.

The teacher must know enough about the techniques of speech correction so that she can either give direct individual help on her own initiative and/or carry out the therapy prescribed by the specialist. She must learn to recognize specific defects so that she can make referrals to a specialist and cooperate in the correction program. The child needs the specialist to show him how to improve, but he needs his regular teacher even more to encourage him and to help him find an accepted place in the society of his classmates.

Guidance for the Child with an Orthopedic Handicap

Traditionally, an orthopedic handicap has been the problem of individual families, physicians, and orthopedic surgeons. Frequently the children have been kept in partial seclusion. More recently, provisions have been made for the education of these children under public supervision and with public finance. The change of policy has placed many of these children in groups of homogeneously handicapped in special schools under special teachers. Many of them, especially the bedridden cases, are being tutored in the home by the visiting teacher. Nevertheless, an increasing number of children with minor disabilities are being absorbed into the regular classes of the public school. It is these with whom we shall be most concerned here, because even though the orthopedic disabilities be minor, special guidance is necessary if those who possess them are to make proper adjustment within the regular schoolroom. A minor disability cannot be arbitrarily defined. Ordinarily it would include those children who are orthopedically handicapped but not to the extent that

they are entirely dependent on crutches for mobility. In some schools, however, facilities, teacher and pupil attitudes, and public attitudes have made an otherwise major disability a minor one, so that even some children who cannot walk, or cannot walk without crutches or a cane, are welcomed as regular classroom participants. The problem of a child in a wheel chair often does not lie with the handicap, but rather with the pupils and their parents in accepting such a child in the public school classroom. In such cases guidance is not confined to the handicapped child, but extends itself to those people surrounding and associated with him. This is essentially the case with all guidance of the handicapped, but it is even more evident in the case of an orthopedic child.

For a definition of an orthopedic handicap we turn once more to the White House Conference report on Child Health and Protection:

A crippled child, in the orthopedic sense, is one, under twenty-one years of age, who by reasons of congenital or acquired defects of development, disease or wound, is, or may be reasonably expected to become, deficient in the use of his body or limbs (an orthopedic cripple) including hare lip, cleft palate, and some other handicaps yielding to plastic surgery, and excluding physical difficulties wholly of sight, hearing, or speech, and those affecting the heart primarily, and also excluding serious mental or moral abnormalities unless found in conjunction with orthopedic defects (36:302).

The Personality of the Child with an Orthopedic Handicap

The personality of an orthopedically handicapped child is molded by the reaction of other people toward him. (While this is true of any personality, it is especially significant for a handicapped child.) Under ideal circumstances, finances and trained personnel permitting, any child capable of learning should receive his education in a normal, not a special, group. From a practical point of view, this is impossible; thus a special type of education must be provided. In a regular class, the handicap of a crippled child affects the character of the total group. Just what the effect will be is determined by the character and quality of guidance given. In some classes, for example, the handicap of a

crippled child will be constantly noticed, until the child becomes self-conscious, insecure, unhappy. This condition may be in contrast to a special class in which the unfortunate child sees other crippled children play and have a good time. Even in a special class, however, guidance is essential in regard to how much sympathy is to be shown; how much performance is to be expected; how much self-responsibility is to be developed. The final result depends upon the intelligence, judgment, and diplomacy of the teacher, regardless of the group in which the child finds himself. As long as a handicap is a source of embarrassment to a child, there will be need of special guidance. Initiative and self-reliance must be developed if the child is to be free from maladjustment. Sometimes these qualities are best developed in the presence of a special group with special equipment and with a special teacher. At other times they can be best developed in the regular classroom. Studies by Baker (7), McGrew (29), and Lee (26) of the personality of orthopedically handicapped children have shown that the handicap itself need not make a child maladjusted, although it may predispose a deviation.

Guidance and the Child of Lowered Vitality

We shall use the phrase "lowered vitality" to include those children who are not in good health, whose bodies will not permit them to participate in normal play, and who need special attention not only to build up their vitality to a normal condition but also to protect them from aggravating existing handicaps. These children are the malnourished, those with incipient tuberculosis (not active), abnormal heart conditions, and those convalescing from such childhood diseases as whooping cough, mumps, scarlet fever, measles, and so on.

The child of lowered vitality is in many respects subject to the same restrictions as the physically handicapped. Not only must his physical activities be restricted on the playground and in the classroom, but he must not participate too vigorously in mental activities. He tires readily, becomes easily irritated, and may become emotionally maladjusted.

The most frequent cause of decreased vitality in childhood is malnutrition usually accompanied by one or more physical de-

fects, frequent illness, and poor health habits. The primary cause is not necessarily lack of food but rather a lack of the proper kind of food, decayed teeth and tonsils, hookworms, or malarial parasites.

A large group of children with low vitality are suffering from tuberculosis or from disabilities caused by this disease. For one group of children who have had tuberculosis, but have recovered so that they no longer expose others, there will be need for added rest, nourishing food, restricted physical activities, and continual inspection. For another group of children who have been in contact with tuberculosis at home or elsewhere, resistance must be built up so that the disease will not occur. These pupils must be watched for symptoms of active tuberculosis to avoid spread of the infection to others. A third group with active tuberculosis should not be in public school at all, but rather in a hospital or sanitarium. Under special circumstances the less severe, nonactive cases may be permitted to attend the regular classroom, but these should report to a special room during periods of the day for additional nutrition and rest periods.

Children with a heart defect are considered to be more seriously handicapped than those of lowered vitality or orthopedic conditions. The heart defect, however, may itself be a cause of low vitality. A "heart case" is difficult to define, except that it is an impairment of the heart below that of the normal or average condition. In common with other handicaps, the degree of severity varies; thus, there can be no exact dividing line between those who should attend the regular classroom and those who should attend the special school. The psychological condition of "cardiacs" (a name commonly given to the people suffering from a heart ailment) are worth noting. In the first place, there are many people with no heart defect at all who believe they are badly afflicted and live in great emotional tension as a result of it. The emotional characteristics of cardiac cases are similar to those of active and advanced cases of pulmonary tuberculosis. Of interest to the teacher are the experimentally determined indications that both children and adults may use their physical handicap as an excuse for abandoning any competitive endeavor.

Guidance of Children with-Neurological or Psychogenic Disease

Why Should We Be Concerned with Mental Disease in the Elementary School?

The definition of mental disease, especially mental disease of childhood, is not clear. In other words, we are not sure when a child is suffering from a mental disease as distinguished from emotional and personality maladjustment. There have emerged, however, some generally recognized common disorders in abnormal psychology which we have not yet considered in our discussion of children who are different. These can be classified for convenience of discussion under neurological or psychogenic disease. We shall include cases of epilepsy, schizophrenia, encephalitis, congenital syphilis, tics, and chorea. The reader will recognize at once that these do not include the entire gamut of mental diseases peculiar to childhood. They do, however, represent the mental diseases most commonly found in childhood. Some of them have a definite physiological cause; others appear to be psychogenic in nature.

In our elementary schools can be found children with "pre-psychotic" conditions, tending toward an eventual psychosis (mental breakdown). Also in the public school are found children with psychopathic conditions; that is, individuals who have some degree of emotional disturbance which may border on an actual mental illness, but which may never develop further in that direction. Because it has been found that many children do not have epileptic seizures during the school day, but are more susceptible to them in homes of domestic strife and discord, many formerly excluded epileptics are now attending school. Although psychoses appear less frequently in childhood than in adulthood, many of the conditions which predispose children toward psychoses are prevalent, and we can never be certain that extreme behavior problems will not develop into a psychotic condition. Children suffering from active psychotic conditions should not continue in the regular classroom. Later, when they recover enough to return, there must be close coöperation between the

teacher and specialist. Then, too, a few children with behavior disorders bordering on psychoses will always be present in the average classroom. Postencephalitic cases will also be found in the public school, and must be given intelligent and wise consideration if they are to make a satisfactory adjustment. Because there is practically no danger of infection in the latent stages of congenital syphilis, many of these children will also be found in the regular classroom.

Faced with the responsibility for guiding these exceptional children, it is the duty of every classroom teacher to be aware of their presence and to understand the importance of special attention in helping them to adapt. The teacher should be aware of possible symptoms and causes of special mental-health problems, be familiar with preventive recommendations, understand the medical diagnoses and recommendations before giving guidance to the pupil, and provide an atmosphere of security by modifying the curriculum to meet individual differences or by avoiding overstimulation and competition.

Special Consideration for the Child with Epilepsy

Contrary to popular opinion, it is possible and desirable for the majority of children with epilepsy to attend school and participate in normal schoolroom activities. These children are handicapped by an exceptional social problem because of the anxiety and terror engendered in others by convulsive seizures, and by the common belief among teachers that they are a severe hazard to themselves and classmates.

The epileptic seizure results in a temporary, spontaneous loss or impairment of consciousness, ordinarily lasting several minutes and accompanied by uncontrolled muscular movements ranging from a mere twitching of the eyelids to falling down and a violent shaking of the entire body. The degrees of severity of the disease range from the *grand mal* attack in which violent convulsions occur, accompanied by extreme bodily and mental disturbance, to the *petit mal* in which only momentary lapses of attention occur. Traditionally, when such children were recognized, they were prohibited from participating in sports and using the stairs

during fire drill, compelled to attend special classes, and even suspended from school altogether.

Epileptic children should be treated as normal children who have a temporary handicap. They do not have a conspicuous appearance, and their illness has usually been so well controlled by medication that seizures during school hours are unlikely. In New York City, home instruction of epileptics was reduced by 75 percent in ten years through proper medical treatment and teacher education (27). Where children are happily occupied with normal activities, social tensions are decreased. Peculiarly enough, when teachers are fearful there is more likelihood that there will be a recurrence of seizure. Furthermore, as the result of proper teacher guidance, many children have more seizures at home than when in school. Help them to overcome the feelings of guilt which have been transferred to them from their parents, who feel guilty about having had such a child. Many of these children have been overprotected by parents who escort them to school, who even lead them up and down stairways, and who refuse to permit them to cross streets or go on errands. Many of them have never been allowed to play at sports, to ride a bicycle, to ride a horse or merry-go-round, to skate, or to be alone. No wonder they respond to such abnormal treatment with hostility, rebelliousness, irritability, or withdrawal. Because they have been taught to regard themselves as being different, they have developed neurotic behaviorisms, especially in attitudes of self-centeredness and oversensitivity.

The teacher has a significant role in guiding the child toward adequate emotional control and social or academic achievement. When teachers become aware of the epilepsy before the child's personality becomes too distorted, a great deal can be done. In every case a clinical diagnosis is desirable. Participating in the diagnosis will be the psychiatrist, who has explored both the wholesome and morbid aspects of the child's emotional life; the physician, who has investigated factors of health; the school psychologist, who has determined intellectual abilities; the parents; and the school representative, who will assume the responsibility of guiding the child during attendance at school. Gen-

erally, a few restrictions will be placed on the child. He should be encouraged to participate in physical training, including swimming or tennis. Serious accidents resulting from seizures have not been frequent enough to warrant special escorts, sitting near the teacher, or riding an elevator instead of using the stairs. In case of seizure a calm, confident, matter-of-fact teacher can do much to alleviate any panic or fear among classmates.

A Consideration of Schizophrenia in Childhood

Although schizophrenia is a comparatively rare disease in childhood, it does occur frequently enough to be included in our discussion. Eight separate characteristics of the disease have been listed by Bradley as follows: seclusiveness, irritability when seclusiveness is interrupted, daydreaming, bizarre behavior, diminution in number of personal interests, regressive nature of personal interests, sensitivity to comment of criticism, and physical inactivity (11). It is normal for children to show interest in and curiosity about their immediate environment. Absence of such interest should warrant close attention by the teacher. As cited in foregoing pages, seclusiveness and withdrawing behavior are serious symptoms, but are often overlooked by parent and teacher. Sudden erratic behavior, awkward and clumsy movements, an interest in vague and abstract ideas, compulsions, or marked religious interest accompanied by delusions and hallucinations are all serious symptoms justifying direct referral to a specialist.

The reader will note that many of the symptoms listed above are also symptoms of emotional maladjustment. Only severe cases which do not respond readily to the principles of general guidance should be referred to a specialist. Otherwise, many pupils suspected of a psychosis will be returned to the teacher with instructions to use the ordinary guidance procedures. Studies have shown that only about 1 percent of problem-behavior cases develop into childhood schizophrenics (28). Types of schizophrenia of childhood can be divided into two categories: (1) the "acute" type, characterized by violent motor symptoms followed by subsequent remissions; and (2) a type represented by a slow, insidious onset with gradual development. The acute type may be similar

to the adult catatonic type, characterized by prolonged and uneven dilation of the pupils of the eyes, an increase of perspiration and saliva, and a blue appearance of the skin. In these cases there will be alternating periods of stupor and excitement. In the stupor there will be great muscular tension followed by flexibility and accompanied by simple mimicry of the motions and speech. In the period of excitement the child will begin hyperactivity, shouting, and repeating senseless phrases.

Delusions and hallucinations, general emotional deterioration, and incoherence of speech are symptoms of what is known as hebephrenic schizophrenia. It is occasionally found in childhood. Children with active schizophrenia should be removed from the regular classroom. The onset is hastened by competition, punishment, and disapproval for malbehavior. It is a challenge to the guidance program to cope with those children who have behavior disorders bordering on psychosis. If the actual conflicts of children can be detected and removed early, it is possible that the number of psychotics can be reduced.

Guidance of the Postencephalitic Child

Encephalitis, commonly known as sleeping sickness, is an acute infection in which there is a period of coma or lethargy, varying in length and severity. About half of those who survive the disease retain some difficult personality and emotional characteristics. Encephalitis may appear suddenly with a headache, nausea, and vomiting, or it may come in the form of general drowsiness. The vision becomes blurred, pupils become unequal in size, facial paralysis may occur, and the muscles of the neck may become rigid. The course of the disease runs from two to twelve weeks.

Postencephalitic behavior may take the form of listlessness, stubbornness, defiance, weeping, and general emotional instability. Well-adjusted children before the disease may become disorderly, disobedient, irritable, and lie, cheat, steal, or commit sexual offenses. Measures of punishment, rebuke, and sarcasm tend to exaggerate these conditions. Intelligence may also deteriorate, depending upon the severity of the disease, which destroys brain and nerve tissue. Immediately after the disease

children need a quiet and noncompetitive environment lasting from a few months to several years. Less serious cases often return to the public school. Even these can develop into extreme behavior problems unless the teacher understands that they have had the disease and can find means to help them to adjust.

The Problem of Congenital Syphilis in Children

The most frequent means of diagnosis of the bacterial disease of syphilis is the Wassermann test. Congenital syphilis, which is acquired from the mother before birth, may result in one or several physical symptoms which make their appearance at irregular times. One of the most common symptoms is Hutchinsonian teeth, in which the two upper central incisors are small, malformed, and discolored. Each has a single crescent-shaped groove in the cutting edge which gives a notched appearance. The other teeth, especially in the upper jaw, are widely spaced, stunted, and otherwise deformed. Another symptom is an affliction of the eyes, known as interstitial keratitis, which begins in one eye between the ages of 5 and 15 years and soon affects the other eye. The disease is usually accompanied by some deafness and by sores or lesions of the skin. The bones are also affected, causing the condition known as "saddle nose" because of the destruction of parts of the nose, which results in a sinking of the bridge. The central nervous system is also involved, with various degrees of impairment. Children with latent stages of congenital syphilis can attend the regular classes of the public school without danger to others, but most of them will need special attention either because of sensory defects, lowered vitality, or serious maladjustment.

Children with Nervous-motor Disorders

Teachers are frequently disturbed to note a tic or muscle spasm of short duration of the face (or on any part of the body) of one of their pupils. The child may blink his eyes continuously, pucker his forehead, or wince his mouth. There have been cases in which one child, apparently through a type of psychological contagion, acquires a tic from another in the class. The causes

of tics are not entirely known. Some of them disappear after a time, but others may persist.

Another nervous-motor condition, caused by an acute disease known as chorea (often referred to as St. Vitus Dance), is occasionally found in a classroom. A child with this disturbance becomes so uneasy and restless that he cannot remain quiet in his seat for more than a second or two. Attempts to force the child to remain still only aggravate the condition. The usual cure for chorea is proper rest and quiet. Any type of poor coordination or unusual awkwardness should be given special attention to determine the possibilities of fundamental mental disorders.

SUMMARY

Although equality of educational opportunity should be extended to exceptional children, this ideal is far from being reached in general practice. In this chapter we have taken the point of view that if the physically handicapped or the non-clinical or noninstitutional type of mentally handicapped needs to be taken from the classroom for special training, he should be returned to his natural group as soon as possible. Although one estimates that from 4 to 5 million children between the ages of 5 and 19 years are so exceptional that special school adjustments are necessary, schools are actually supplying such service for only about one tenth of this group.

The principles of teaching exceptional children in the elementary schools discussed in this chapter are (1) to recognize similarities rather than differences, (2) to give the exceptional child his education in as natural an environmental setting as possible, and (3) to provide adequately trained personnel as instructors of exceptional children.

The handicapped child is subject to all the adjustment problems of children who are physically normal, but because of his handicap the following personality traits may be prominent: (1) sensitivity to being different from others, (2) reduction of tension through abnormally exaggerated mechanisms, (3) feelings of fear, (4) symptoms of familial overprotection. It is essential that the

teacher and school administrator have a clear understanding of the psychological effects of a physical handicap. Guidance is especially concerned with diagnosis of school adjustment.

The mentally exceptional child has been described as one who deviates or varies from the normal in his ability to learn. The variations may include the mentally gifted and the mentally retarded as well as those with special talent in a definite field such as art, music, or mechanics. The slow-learning child is one who does not respond to the ordinary school curriculum and to the ordinary methods and procedures of the classroom teacher. He is much like any other child, having the same basic needs, the same general physical appearance, and using the same ways of learning. He may be discovered through informal observation, examination of the cumulative record, overagedness, abnormal physical characteristics, and administration of standardized tests. Drill and repetition are not the answer to teaching the slow learner. Like their classmates, these children need meaning and understanding in what they learn. Immediate steps should be taken to discover and correct physical defects such as poor vision, partial hearing, malnutrition, and restricted physical activity. Every effort should be made to bring slow children into first-hand contact with the world about them.

The gifted child has been the neglected child because he is usually able to learn under unusual handicaps. The widespread belief that he is pathological, unhealthy, and antisocial is unfounded. The most logical procedure for providing for the superior child is to enrich the curriculum. Because parents frequently forget that mental precocity is not always accompanied by commensurate social or physical development, much maladjustment is caused through improper family relationships. The experience-unit method now frequently used in the best elementary schools is eliminating much of the difficulty imposed by having the mentally retarded and mentally accelerated pupils together in the same classroom.

A physically handicapped child is a child who is prevented by a physical condition from full participation in childhood activities of a social, recreational, or educational nature. Some of these handicaps are visual, aural, speech, orthopedic, lowered

vitality, neurological or psychogenic disease, epilepsy, schizophrenia, and nervous-motor disorders. Although the techniques for guiding children with these handicaps are usually supervised by specialists, the milder cases must be helped primarily by the classroom teacher. Much can be accomplished by observing the principles of guidance applied to physically handicapped children. A well-adjusted handicapped child should be regarded as an individual who has been helped to adjust to his problem, rather than as a child who has never had a problem. His parents and teachers can never completely ignore his handicap.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. Should the exceptional child be taught in a special class or in a normal group of children? Explain.
2. How is guidance related to the education of the exceptional child?
3. Should slow-learning children be placed under the supervision of "remedial teachers"? Why or why not?
4. Who is to determine who shall be the exceptional child? What is his fate?
5. Should bright children be grouped together for instructional purposes? Why or why not?
6. Should any child in a wheel chair be placed in a group of normal children for instruction? Explain.
7. What evidence is available that the majority of cases of stuttering are emotional rather than organic?
8. Describe a case of your acquaintance with an orthopedic handicap. Evaluate the procedures being taken toward providing education for this case.
9. Why should we be concerned with mental disease in the elementary school?
10. Give the arguments for and against the attendance of an "epileptic case" in a public school.

CHAPTER 10

Evaluation and Research in Guidance

EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GUIDANCE

Evaluation in Theory and Practice

Evaluation—An Essential Element in the Guidance Process

Our intentions may be good, our industry may be thorough, our affection for the child may be sincere, our faith in a democratic society may be supreme; yet none of these essentials are sufficient unless time is periodically apportioned to consider just what is being attempted, what is being accomplished, how accomplishment compares with aspiration, and what can be done to balance aspiration and achievement. Action guided by thought regarding these aspects of education may be described as evaluation. Guidance is concerned with helping the child to live an efficient and happy life. This is the key to the question, "What is being attempted?" An answer to this question requires an examination of the objectives of education, which cannot be formulated without a broad understanding of (1) the demands made upon children by varied American cultural groups and American culture in general, (2) the interests and needs of children, and (3) the psychology of learning (12).

The purposes of education in American democracy have been summarized under four groups of objectives:

1. Self-realization.
2. Human relationships.
3. Economic efficiency.
4. Civic responsibility (30).

The objectives have been formulated out of the general social policy of continued striving toward the democratic ideal in which certain significant elements stand out above all others. These elements have been listed as (1) an interest in the general welfare, e.g., an interest in the other fellow and a feeling of kinship with other people more or less fortunate than oneself; (2) a respect for civil liberty, e.g., a respect for the moral rights and feelings of others, for the sanctity of each individual personality; (3) the consent of the governed, e.g., the assent of the people in matters of social control and the participation of all concerned in arriving at important decisions; (4) the appeal to reason, e.g., the application of peaceful and orderly methods to the arbitration of controversial questions; (5) setting a high value upon the pursuit of happiness, e.g., the attainment of human happiness is the basis for judging the effectiveness of social life.

The second question, "What is being accomplished?" can be answered only through observation of how the child feels and behaves in life situations. In other words, tasks at which children must succeed at various developmental levels must be identified, and experiences must be provided in which there is opportunity to succeed. There remains the task of determining how much knowledge has been obtained, how many skills were acquired and what attitudes were formed, and the degree of success attained. When the aims of guidance have been described in terms of specific behavior, both verbal and nonverbal, the evaluation procedure becomes a process of observing samples of specific behavior. Samples of specific behavior rather than total behavior are observed because not only would it be impossible to observe all specific behavior developing directly from guidance, but it would also be impossible to observe the degree of transfer to situations in which there has been no guidance.

Observations of samples of specific behavior may include all

of the techniques of collecting data which we have discussed. Some of these are standardized and nonstandardized pencil-and-paper tests, anecdotal records, sociograms, group discussion, interview, case histories and conferences, projective techniques, check lists, rating scales, inventories, logs and diaries, parent conferences, recordings and stenographic reports, cumulative records, and files of sample materials. In many schools, tests still constitute the major instruments for evaluating results of academic learning, but for the evaluation of guidance effectiveness the more informal instruments are necessary. The term "evaluation" is itself far more inclusive than the measurement concept usually reserved for standardized tests. The comprehensiveness of the evaluation process extends to the whole personality of the pupil and is not restricted to his academic achievement.

How does accomplishment compare with aspiration? All steps of evaluation require pupil participation, but the answer to the question is especially applicable. The pupil can set his goals and determine how closely he has come to achieving them. The teacher can also set her goals in guidance and, after examining data of observation, decide how nearly she has accomplished them. In both cases the degree of nearness to accomplishment definitely determines the formation of new goals. This process of new planning, therefore, brings us to the fourth question related to evaluation, "What can be done to balance aspiration and achievement?"

Guidance is concerned with pupil behavior. Because pupil behavior is determined by the interaction between certain innate human characteristics and the environment in which the pupil lives, it is necessary to appraise the effects of this interaction. Before a guidance worker can help a pupil, an evaluation must be made of his specific capacities and aptitudes; his acquisition of such skills as reading, writing and arithmetic; his achievements of information, knowledge, or creative pursuits; his health. In other words, evaluation is a comprehensive process which indicates the status of the whole personality. It should include an evaluation of the pupil's knowledge, but even more important is the evaluation of aptitudes, interest, attitudes, temperament, social adaptability, and habits of work and play.

Objectives and Specific Behavior in a Modern Elementary School Curriculum

The steps in evaluation in building a school curriculum are well illustrated by the coöperative efforts of the staff of the public schools of Winnetka, Illinois, reported by Shane (26). The final results of this effort at curriculum-making reflects an effort to analyze the components of socially desirable educational goals and the kinds of behavioral responses that indicate child growth through experience toward these goals. The behavioral responses chosen will indicate the educationally significant experiences which should be planned by the pupils and teachers working together. The sum of these experiences comprises the elementary school curriculum. The guidance function of the intelligent teacher is to refine and control the quality of children's learning experiences. Such control is determined by her knowledge of the developmental needs of children and her ability to appraise the worth of experiences which carry children toward desirable educational goals.

FIRST BASIC OBJECTIVE: To develop devotion to a democracy and insight into democratic values in a world matrix.

<i>Specific Components</i>	<i>Behavioral Responses</i>
To deepen and widen social identification.	<i>Works</i> coöperatively with others in a group.
To cultivate awareness of and concern for social problems created by: social, political, economic, and technological changes.	<i>Participates</i> in activities of his group. <i>Gives</i> service, progressing from response to requests.
To minimize prejudices.	<i>Shares</i> possessions and experiences with her group.
To develop appreciation of others and respect for their rights.	<i>Contributes</i> to solving group problems through offering ideas and materials.
To develop and encourage responsible freedom and expression. (A child is increasingly free to the degree to which self-responsibility is assumed.)	<i>Responds</i> with more understanding toward an individual when the causes for his behavior are explained.

Specific Components

To recognize and develop leadership as a group function. (As each person contributes suggestions for the solution of a common problem, he is for the time being a leader.)

To cultivate the disposition to act courageously in accordance with one's convictions.

To develop convictions in the direction of more democratic values.

To improve the community through the operation of the school program.

To help children recognize as good those elements in our way of life that are democratic.

To give children experiences in the organizations and techniques of democratic social control and to encourage social inventiveness.

To develop faith in the aggregate ability of people to move toward socially desirable, democratic goals.

To assume tasks voluntarily.

Behavioral Responses

Abides by majority decisions.

Shows respect for the right of individuals to express minority opinions.

Expresses satisfaction in the accomplishment of his group.

Expresses appreciation for contribution of others.

Does unsupervised work with increasing success.

Appraises new developments in terms of their inherent values rather than in terms of traditional habits and patterns of response and ideas.

Shows progressive improvement in acting courageously upon democratic convictions.

Opposes notions detrimental to the common welfare.

Shows concern about ways of improving the conditions of living together in widening social groups—family, play, class, school, community, etc.—and *initiates* action in bringing about such improvements.

Initiates group discussion of problems of common concern.

Shares in reaching decisions that affect the group and

Assumes a fair portion of responsibility for carrying them through.

Three other basic objectives and their specific components and behavioral responses are listed. Those are to develop the child's personal adequacy and his feeling of personal adequacy in immediate social situations, to develop in children the ability to sense and to solve problems by thinking reflectively and scientifically, to help children acquire knowledge and to guide their growth toward skills which will implement the preceding objectives, and which will enable each child to become of greatest use to himself and to society (10).

The behavioral responses are proposed as points of orientation in evaluating potential experiences to determine whether they shall have a place in the flexible, emergent school living of children. Six criteria may be used to evaluate the usefulness of an experience either for a group or for an individual. A desirable learning experience:

Is consistent with the developmental level and satisfies the developmental needs of the group.

Fosters growth toward democratic insights and beliefs, social adequacy, clear and creative thinking, and socially useful skills and knowledges.

Promises to promote understanding of the community and to be of direct value to improve community living.

Seems likely to help children develop positive and active attitudes toward important needs and elements in a concentrically widening environment, e.g., the need to conserve human and natural resources.

Recognizes realistically the limitations of available resources of time, space, and materials.

Offers children suitable opportunities for direct experience in the physical environment of the school and community (10:2).

Pupils and Teacher Evaluate Together

The objectives of education, general or specific, must always lie within the framework of democratic ideals. No part of the educative process, therefore, should be characterized by autocracy. Unfortunately, evaluative practices in the traditional schools of America have violated this important maxim by leaving all phases of evaluation to the teacher or administrator for purposes of determining skills, grades, promotions, and reten-

tions. The pupil, for whom the schools have been established, has had no part in appraising his progress. At least we are beginning to recognize not only the essential part evaluation has in the learning process, but also the pupils' democratic right to participate in formulating educational purposes and in sharing judgment on his progress in learning. Pupils who work together in achieving results which they have helped to determine, and who participate in evaluating what has been accomplished, are learning at first-hand the democratic way of life.

Illustrative of pupil participation in evaluation is a report by Berger (5), who describes how the process may operate. The class in question began with the formulation of objectives: "What objectives are we to work for as individuals and as a group?" From a long list suggested by the pupils, the class attempted to erect a set of goals that everyone would be willing to accept. Typical of the specific objectives were to have each pupil work up to his own ability; to learn to eliminate prejudices; to learn self-expression with ease before a group; to eliminate cliques. A committee of five volunteered to summarize, organize, and evaluate; then a final simplified list was presented to each person for checking the goals he believed to be most important. The goals were then stated in the form of questions which could be later used for evaluative purposes. These were organized under two broad categories, individual and social. A social objective may be used for an example:

Attitudes and skills needed for effective participation in a coöperative society: Does the pupil: (1) show respect and understanding for others and courtesy in behavior, (2) exercise self-control, (3) consider the group as well as himself in making decisions, (4) support the group decisions, (5) actively participate in all phases of the group's work, (6) show willingness to accept responsibilities, and (7) participate in the practice of self-government?

These objectives were listed opposite a ten-point scale. During a pupil-teacher conference a joint decision was made on the final rating to be given the pupil. In arriving at the decision, the following objective sources of information were considered as pertinent evidence: the teacher's records, samples of pupil's work,

records of class discussion, committee meetings and group projects, lists of activities in which the pupil had participated.

Another illustration may be cited from Grim (17), who describes how youngsters evaluate themselves in a fourth-grade class in a work period with wood, clay, weaving, and drawing, where pupils and teacher regularly discuss standards of work, use of time, and quality of work. This is a type of evaluation period in which individual pupils explain how they have made their pieces and plan for next steps. Other pupils point out work well done and suggest specific ways of improvement. The pupils themselves decide when a project is finished. They share with the teacher in determining standards for oral reading, oral discussion, and academic achievements in arithmetic and spelling.

We may use a final example from Wrightstone. He reports a sixth-grade teacher who worked out a rating scale on personal and social conduct with her pupils. Under the guidance of the teacher the class selected items for a rating scale. On this scale the pupil rated himself and was rated by his teacher as "below average," "average," or "above average." Sample items from the scale are: (1) to be a good sport: (a) play fair in all games, (b) follow rules, (c) keep from cheating, (d) choose sides fairly, (e) accept leader's decision. (2) Give others a chance to do things: (a) during discussion, (b) during quiet time, (c) consider suggestions of others, (d) recognize direction (33).

The pupil should be no more isolated from the appraisal process than from other aspects of the learning situation. True learning results only as he recognizes and accepts goals as being personally vital and important, and he determines his own status and growth patterns in relation to these goals. Through the process of evaluation, the pupil will discover his strengths, weaknesses, problems, and special abilities. In addition to the use of tests and rating scales, pupils can keep diaries or logs of their activities and can save samples of written reports and products in drawing or other expressional activities. When these records and products are jointly evaluated by pupil, parent, and teacher in order to estimate the degree of progress toward mutually determined goals, the pupil is receiving an essential part of his education.

Pupil, Parent, and Teacher Talk Things Over

The adults with whom a child lives outside of school hours are equally as, if not more, influential in the total education of the child, as the teacher herself. A teacher who attempts to measure the influence of the school upon a pupil without the aid of the pupil and his parent is working under discouraging handicaps. Traditionally, the teacher has at six-week intervals given the child a numerical or letter grade in the academic subjects, along with a check on several personality traits, and the child has taken the report home to obtain the signature of the parent. Sometimes the report initiated a visit to the teacher by the parent, but in the majority of cases nothing whatever occurred on the part of pupil, parent, or teacher. Fortunately, many teachers use neither grade nor report card. Evaluation is to them a democratic process in which pupil, parent, and teacher talk things over. All three of these interested individuals need one another. A teacher who evaluates without the help of pupil and parent is likely to place too much emphasis on academic aspects and may never know how the parent has evaluated either her or her pupil. The parent who evaluates the progress of the pupil without consulting the teacher may be entirely unaware of the school's purposes and philosophy.

The parent-teacher conference, which is rapidly replacing the old-fashioned report card, is one of the most useful methods of evaluating the effect of the school on pupil learning. To be effective, the conference must be held at an appointed time in which the pupil and his problems are specifically discussed. True, the conference is by no means the only evaluation technique used, but it rates so high in importance that we can benefit by considering some of the techniques which make it successful. The features of a successful parent-teacher conference have been well described by Hufstедler (19). First in importance is preparation. A parent who comes unannounced to interview a teacher at the end of the school day may find a defensive, weary, and perhaps frightened teacher. Rapport can be no better if a teacher visits the mother at home in the middle of the family wash. Conferences should be held at a regularly scheduled time at the

invitation to the parent to visit school or at the invitation of the teacher to visit the home. All conferences cannot be held at school. Many mothers work away from home and are unable to come to school. Teachers have been known to see the mother at lunch time in the vicinity of her work, although such an occasion would be warranted only in a most exceptional circumstance.

A second important feature is a sincere effort on the part of the teacher to establish rapport. The teacher must make a conscientious attempt to talk in the parent's language rather than in the jargon of an academic pedagogue. Parents are often placed on the defensive when a teacher speaks of maturity, intelligence quotient, and organismic age. Unless there is proper rapport, emotions of both parent and teacher will direct thought and conversation to themselves rather than to the pupil, who represents the original purpose of the interview. Interference with rapport is likely to be fostered by certain psychological barriers. Rivalry, for example, frequently exists between teacher and mother. The teacher may seem to resent the mother, who apparently has all things in life most women want—a husband, children, and a home. The mother resents the teacher because for the first time the child is finding another person to love and respect. The mother, if she is not college-trained, may feel ill at ease with a teacher who has been to college. The teacher then takes advantage of the situation to compensate for feelings of inferiority caused by low salaries and lack of social prestige.

A teacher can never fully understand a pupil unless she talks to the mother on several occasions. A mother can never completely know her child unless she talks with the teacher. It is desirable and most beneficial to the child, therefore, that parent, teacher, and pupil participate in conferences occasionally.

Evaluation of Progress in Developing Citizenship

The fundamental purpose of the social studies embraces all the basic objectives of guidance. A statement by Beard is applicable: "Our fundamental purpose . . . is the creation of rich, many-sided personalities, equipped with practical knowledge and inspired by ideals so that they can make their way and fulfill

their missions in a changing society which is part of a world complex" (4:96). An excellent illustration for evaluating one aspect of this objective is the study reported by Bath (3), who attempted to make an evaluation of a specific program designed to encourage and develop those traits which, in a broad sense, were believed to be primary components of good citizenship. He quoted the definition of citizenship given by Bonser (7): "Citizenship means personal responsibility for the well-being of all as well as opportunity for personal freedom in doing whatever is desirable providing this does not interfere with the equal freedom of anyone else. It means restraint as well as liberty" (3:15).

Experience situations in which it is assumed citizenship qualities can be learned: Typical of 150 different activities listed were (1) chairman of a committee from a class or a club, (2) classroom assistant, (3) a member of an election board, (4) upkeep of public property, (5) savings and investment plan, (6) writing a play, (7) first-place awards at state fair, 4-H club, hobby shows, etc., (8) personal account system indicating wise use of money, and (9) member of a home-room team. Definite standards were established for each activity, and credit for the activity was judged and authorized by the sponsor, a classroom teacher, a home-room teacher, principal, or other responsible person.

Criterion of effectiveness: Do the pupils who have these experiences become better citizens than those who do not? Later citizenship was judged by such sample factors as (1) occupational stability, (2) economic status, (3) educational status, (4) marital and family status, (5) participation in church and welfare, (6) reputation for meeting financial obligations, (7) conflicts with the law, and (8) membership and participation in civic organizations.

Results: Those having had the designated citizenship experiences (they had been awarded an efficiency certificate) were later superior to those not having had the experiences in the majority of respects on which comparisons were made. They had better jobs, were more stable in their occupations, had a better reputation for meeting their financial obligations, came into conflict with the law less frequently, contributed more to church and welfare organizations, and continued their education longer.

For further illustrative procedures in the social-studies cur-

riculum areas, we shall use a suggested approach to an evaluation of spiritual values by Sands (25). To evaluate the spiritual aspect of a pupil's nature, certain assumptions have to be made. It is necessary to assume, for example, that spiritual life is adequate when the individual becomes a part of all that is socially worth while in his personal and institutional associations. A pupil becomes associated with worthy purposes and activities, yet he maintains his free personality. A second assumption is that the spiritual life of a person is expressed at least in part through his observable conduct—his actions and language as manifested through wholesome participation in all areas of life.

Eight criteria by which the values of spiritual life may be evaluated are:

1. Respect for others—attitudinal behavior to be expressed in respect for all individuals irrespective of race, creed, or national origins. This basic respect is nonpartisan, unprejudiced, and voluntary, accompanied by an attitude that all humans are entitled to equal rights in freedom and security.

Suggested method of evaluation: Use anecdotes of group and individual acceptance of all people on all levels. Look for situations within the home, school, and community.

2. Sympathy for the less fortunate; i.e., sympathetic behavior for those less fortunate in health, physical strength, economic circumstance, political and social conditions.

Suggested method of evaluation: Observe evidence of helpfulness. Tests can also be constructed which will reveal attitudes of sympathy.

3. Coöperation in personal and social situations.

Suggested method of evaluation: Observe degree to which the pupil is willing to coöperate with individuals and groups in social and institutional life. It is possible to arrange an examination that will appraise a pupil's desire to work with others. Observe and record action.

4. Promotion of desirable standards of behavior. Spiritual living is related to good behavior in all types of situations.

Suggested method of evaluation: Make examinations to reveal knowledge of standards. (If standards are known, it is possible to examine a pupil relative to his desire to improve such stand-

ards by his own conduct. Examinations sometimes reveal a surprising ignorance of standards- supposed to be generally known.) Use anecdotal records of conformance to or violations of standards.

5. Recognition of adults as spiritual leaders. Young people are in need of adult leadership.

Suggested method of evaluation: Observe respect and behavior of children toward adults (the adults with whom the pupils are acquainted must be spiritual leaders.)

6. Participation in group activities of spiritual nature. Attitude toward educational assemblies, church, symbolical ceremonies, and toward small, spiritually directed gatherings are all indicative of spirituality.

Suggested method of evaluation: Observe evidence of readiness to participate as well as actual participation.

7. Consideration for public and private property.

Suggested method of evaluation: Anecdotes on behavior toward property in and about school, home, and community.

8. Appreciation of the school. The school should be regarded as an agent of society.

Suggested method of evaluation: Anecdotal records describing desire to attend school, regularity of attendance, sorrow when school is over, visits to school after completion of courses.

The general methods of evaluation suggested are: (1) an evaluation of what the child says in classroom discussions and problem situations; (2) an evaluation of his creative efforts in art and in written language; (3) an evaluation of attitudinal tests; (4) an evaluation of anecdotal records from classrooms, halls, and playgrounds.

EVALUATION OF GUIDANCE SERVICES TO THE CHILD

In the preceding pages of this chapter the general procedures for evaluation were presented. These procedures were illustrated by suggested evaluation techniques in the social studies subject-matter area. The general techniques for evaluating guidance are no different from those employed in any other phase of the

school. Goals must be established; specific behaviorisms must be described; learning situations must be controlled in order that the specific behaviorisms can be learned; observation must be employed and the results recorded to note the extent to which they have been learned; new revisions and plans must be made as a result of the interpretation of the observations.

Setting the Objectives—What Is to Be Accomplished?

Evaluation of guidance services in general school practice thus far has been incomplete, largely because of failure to answer the question, "What is to be accomplished?" Even the concept of guidance itself differs according to the point of view of the teacher, the psychologist, or the counselor. Far too many school guidance programs lack clearly defined objectives. In one school the attendance officer is the matrix of the guidance program; in another, the school counselor or counselors assume the full responsibility. The evaluation of guidance, then, as presented here must necessarily reflect the philosophy and meaning of terms held by the writer. Let us review some of these concepts briefly.

The Concept of Guidance

Throughout this volume we have upheld the point of view that guidance is a learning situation and differs from teaching only in emphasis. A pupil attends school because the environment can be arranged and controlled under the direction of a teacher, who facilitates learning. The teacher, then, is the principal functionary in the elementary school. The learning, good or bad, which develops as a result of attendance to school occurs largely because of her influence. Because of the intricate and complex factors of the learning process, however, the teacher must have access to the aid of special school counselors, health specialists, the clinical psychologist or school psychiatrist, the social worker, and the specialist for the physically handicapped. These specialists are available to help the teacher in her most responsible task of guiding the pupil. To a limited extent she will use some of the techniques used by any one, or all, of these specialists. There

will be occasions, for example, when she will be especially alert for symptoms of contagious diseases or for sensory defects; there will be times when she will administer group standardized tests, and times when she will counsel. In none of these will she be expected to accomplish as much as an expert; therefore, with difficult personality deviates she must make referrals to a specially trained person.

The function of guidance is to provide conditions that give the child optimum opportunity for total growth; that is, growth from an organismic point of view, which implies that the child must be understood as a whole in order to understand his special problems of learning. Evaluation, then, will attempt to determine the degree of progress of each child. Evaluation of training of personnel, organization of guidance services, financial support obtainable for guidance services, availability of secretarial help, availability of guidance space and equipment—all these are subordinate to the task of determining, "How much progress has the child made?"

Formulating Achievement Objectives

Other than the broad general objective stated in the foregoing paragraph, there can be no standard set of objectives of guidance. Many different objectives are possible. In the social-studies area, for example, the objective of producing desirable citizenship was cited. The concept of just what constitutes a desirable citizen, however, varies from one teacher to another. Under guidance we may well list the specific objective of producing a normally adjusted child. Once again the concept of adjustment will vary from teacher to teacher or from psychologist to psychologist. A well-adjusted boy in the eyes of a parent with inordinately high standards may be in need of psychotherapy in the eyes of a psychiatrist. Citizenship (or adjustment) is a nebulous concept unless it can be defined in terms of specific behavior. Specific behaviorisms are so numerous that they can never become standardized to the point of acceptance by all. This is possibly the reason why evaluation in guidance has been excessively concerned with the mechanics of counseling, training of personnel, or guid-

ance administration and organization. *These are secondary rather than primary factors of the evaluation of guidance.*

Stimulating Improvement Through an Evaluation Program of Guidance Services

Because an evaluation of a guidance program requires the establishment of a criterion, much value can be derived from either setting up a new criterion or from revising a criterion already proposed. The ultimate criterion must always be determined by the *needs of pupils* and the *school community*. The determination of the needs of pupils is a gigantic task for any designated school population and will require the coöperative effort of classroom teacher, specialist, and administrator. If the guidance program of an entire school unit is being appraised, the work can be delegated to committees. These committees may be assigned the task of collecting general data, while classroom teachers may begin immediately to collect data within their own classroom by the use of anecdotal records, and so on—in fact, by using the suggestions given in Chapters 2 and 3. Data should be collected on enrollment by grade (or designated group), sex, race, intelligence, socioeconomic background, mode of transportation to school, and permanence of residence. It is important to know the percentage of transfers and newcomers (school population turnover), the occupational and socioeconomic status of parents. The work of classroom teachers and counselors can be made lighter if such information about the community is obtained as kinds of industry and business, churches, libraries, museums, parks, theaters, forums, operas, health centers and clinics, night clubs, taverns, and recreational centers both publicly and privately owned. General surveys of pupil needs have long been the subject of investigation. Space does not permit a definitive description and evaluation of techniques and results. We shall, therefore, use only two or three for illustrative purposes.

The study by Rath and Metcalf (24), which obtained needs of children through the use of a needs inventory in the form of a check list, later called "The Wishing Well," has already been

cited. In this survey it was assumed that the specific wishes of children were related to more generalized felt needs. The needs discovered were a feeling of belonging; a sense of achievement; economic security; freedom from fear; love and affection; freedom from guilt; a share in making decisions; and personal integration in attitudes, beliefs, and values. The authors assumed that children probably have many needs other than those included in their survey, but they felt that these eight areas are so important that some knowledge of the extent to which they are being met would give teachers a significant insight into the behavior of their pupils.

Symonds and Sherman (29) conducted a personality survey in a Manhattan, New York, school which included 930 pupils. An important instrument used in the survey was a questionnaire to determine the pupil's attitudes and feelings about himself. From the results of the questionnaire a battery of questions was designed to discriminate students who were happy, adequate, and well-adjusted socially from those who did not have these traits.

Illustrative of cooperative teacher investigation of pupil needs is the program reported by Stretch (28) in Waco, Texas. In the interests of a curriculum-revision program to meet individual and social needs of pupils, teachers observed, interviewed, and tested many school children. Observations were made of the pupils' use of English, their social relations, their individual development, and their special abilities. Questionnaires in the form of letters to parents were used as preparatory media to interviews. Interviews were also had with the pupil in an attempt to discover likes, dislikes, difficulties, and desires. Various types of intelligence and other educational tests were administered and their individual differences carefully studied. From data collected, curriculum experiences and materials were suggested in an effort to meet the needs and interests of each pupil.

Fenton (14) has suggested a general outline for the study of the individual pupil in terms of needs. Instructions at the beginning of this outline ask that replies be omitted when adequate data are not available. At the end of each question, space is provided for comments or reservations, and the sides of the page may

be used for supplementary notations. Questions to be answered Yes or No are listed under seven basic needs: (1) the need for a healthy body and good physique and appearance; (2) the need for feelings of security; (3) the need for social adjustment and recognition; (4) the need for feelings of competence; (5) the need to accept conditions, the realities, of his own life; (6) the need to experience curiosity and pleasure for its own sake, and for active and varying interests; (7) the need to be considered a developing personality. For purposes of illustration, an excerpt from the outline is offered.

THE NEED FOR SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT AND RECOGNITION:

- a. Is the student accepted as a member of the group at home without resentment and jealousy by others there? Yes. No. Without favoritism or preferment? Yes. No. Does he feel jealousy or resentment toward anyone in the home? Yes. No. Explain: *Some conflict with older brother. George is treated well but not wisely by parents.*
- b. Does he feel that he belongs to his group at school? Yes. No. Does he feel accepted by other children? Yes. No. By the teacher? Yes. No. Explain: *Compensates by attention-getting, feels discriminated against. Complains and mother supports his complaints.*
- c. Does he receive recognition for legitimate achievement at home? Yes. No. In school? Yes. No. Elaborate: *Parents tend to spoil him. In school he has little opportunity for wholesome achievements.*
- d. Does he need to seek recognition through show-off behaviors or other unwholesome attention-getting devices? Yes. No. How? *Difficult to handle in class because of attention-getting behavior.*
- e. Does he have some special friends in school? Yes. No. In the neighborhood? Yes. No. Does he take initiative in seeking friendships? Yes. No. Comment on the range and quality of friendships: *Has a girl friend in class. Other children like him but resent his behavior.*
- f. Does he have a reasonably unselfish and generous attitude toward others? Yes. No. Is he mature enough to hold ideals of social betterment? Yes. No. Explain: *Very selfish.*
- g. Does he give evidence of prejudice or antagonisms (racial, religious, social, sex) which influence his choice of associates, or lead to the avoidance of certain classmates? Yes. No. Specify:
- h. Does he behave well and observe the ordinary social decorum in the classroom? Yes. No. Elsewhere? Yes. No. Comment:

<i>Conditions Noted</i>	<i>Plans of Treatment</i>
1. Attention-getting behavior.	1. Teachers to recognize limitation in ability; adjust work; give praise for legitimate accomplishments. Mother to understand his need to face reality.
2. Lack of sufficient wholesome associations.	2. Join Scouts, attend Sunday School (14:192).

The Evaluation of Guidance Procedures

The evaluation of procedures in guidance is an indirect method of determining the effects of guidance on the life of the child. A review of the literature on evaluation leads to a conclusion that the benefits and limitations of the guidance program can be determined only by inference from studies of specific techniques. Froehlich, who has made one of the most thorough reviews of literature to date on evaluation procedure, has organized procedures into the following subsections:

1. External criteria, the do-you-do-this? method.
2. Follow-up, the what-happened-then? method.
3. Client opinion, the what-do-you-think? method.
4. Expert opinion, the "Information Please" method.
5. Specific techniques, the little-by-little method.
6. Within-group changes, the before-and-after method.
7. Between-group changes, the what's-the-difference? method (15:21).

The external-criteria method attempts to establish standards against which the guidance program can be compared. The criteria have been determined by experts, by proposing a priori standards, and by analyzing guidance programs which have succeeded or failed. The follow-up method has generally been used to determine the effectiveness of counseling. The specific follow-up instruments used have been the questionnaire, interview, study of change in college grades, formal tests. The request of students to give their opinion regarding the guidance they received is also a kind of follow-up technique.

The expert-opinion method seeks subjective evaluation by experts by interview, by checking a scale of items, by evaluating

case records, and by asking the opinions of parents. Specific methods seek to determine the reliability and validity of tests, of adjustment surveys, of occupational monographs, of student interviews, and the usefulness of certain information such as census data and data from part-time job experience. The within-group-changes method is a before-and-after procedure frequently used to evaluate an occupations or orientation course, changes of attitude, the effect of counseling interviews, and the usefulness of certain information which is available to counselors. The between-group-changes method is concerned with discovering differences between two matched groups when one group is exposed to some guidance activity and the other is not. This method has been largely confined to instructional situations under supervision of guidance workers and to individual counseling.

The Teacher and the Counselor

The center of attention throughout our entire discussion of guidance has been upon the child and the most influential adult in his school life, his teacher. In numerous instances we have emphasized that the teacher is the chief functionary of guidance in the elementary school. In the secondary school, however, the counselor is probably considered the chief functionary. We have referred to the counselor as a specialist in the guidance program. Because his training surpasses that of most classroom teachers, he merits the respect of the teacher, who should consult him often and be willing to profit by his suggestions. A counselor has been given his title because of his special ability and training in guidance. Erikson states that "counseling is the very heart of the guidance program. It is the process through which the pupil is assisted to discover his own assets and limitations so that he may be helped to make choices and adjustments that will contribute most to his success, present and future" (13:257).

An Evaluation of the Counselor and His Work

Because of the importance of the counselor as a specialist in the guidance program, we shall discuss briefly some external criteria of his effectiveness in the elementary school (11:3).

1. The counselor is an educator whose qualifications of training and experience prepare him to provide counseling to assist pupils to make adjustments.
2. The counselor must be qualified to take active responsibility for organizing, giving directions, and implementing the essential supporting activities.
3. The counselor must be able to aid administrators, teachers, other staff members, and parents to perform their daily tasks of working with individuals more effectively. This includes such activities as (a) interpreting the guidance program and securing their support, (b) providing them with data which will help them to understand the individual and his needs, (c) giving direct assistance to teachers who have exceptional pupils or who present problems, (d) developing in-service training programs.
4. The counselor should be able to interpret data through guidance services as a partial basis for total school program planning
5. The counselor should have a teacher's certificate valid for the grade level in which he is employed. He should also have at least the equivalent of a Master's degree with major emphasis in the essential areas of the guidance program. He should have at least two years of successful teaching.
6. The counselor should be qualified to organize the guidance staff, tools, and techniques of which he has charge into an effective program.
7. The counselor should be able to plan and use effectively the physical facilities for the guidance program.
8. The counselor should be able to evaluate the school's guidance program by use of suitable instruments and judgment and act on the evidence of such evaluations.
9. The counselor should be able to use instructional and administrative resources to implement the decisions of pupils as a result of interviews.
10. The counselor should be able to promote a concept of the proper function of the guidance program within the general framework of the objectives of education. This involves an understanding and willingness to help the administrator to utilize the resources of the guidance program.
11. The counselor should understand and endorse relationships involved in aiding classroom teachers to apply resources of the guidance program.
12. The counselor should be qualified to collect, identify, and classify data derived from the activities of the guidance program.

13. The counselor should understand the relationship of the guidance program to the community and be able to secure community support.
14. The counselor should know what individual data are likely to be pertinent, and should be proficient in the uses of tools and techniques for obtaining them.
15. The counselor should be able to organize and interpret individual data according to patterns of behavior and development, according to the structure and dynamics of cultural environment, and according to educational and developmental opportunities. . . .
16. The counselor should be able to interpret the relationship between data about an individual and the aims and objectives of the school. . . .
17. The counselor should be proficient in the techniques for recording and maintaining data. . . .
18. In counseling techniques the counselor should be competent in initiating counseling, interpreting individual inventory data, interviewing, using school and community resources, facilitating progress and continuity in counseling, in terminating counseling, in evaluating counseling, and in maintaining contact with professional developments in counseling and related fields (9:5).

Concluding Statement Regarding Evaluation of the Guidance Program

The ultimate test of effective guidance is the degree to which it has facilitated the learning of each individual pupil. In this sense learning embraces not only the acquisition of the fundamental skills and essential understandings of the academic curriculum areas, but it also includes learning how to adjust to a democratic social order. Guidance reaches into the lives of all pupils in the school, extending from the youngest beginner up to those oldest in age and tenure in colleges and universities. It permeates all activities of the classroom and the school in general, and involves the coöperation of pupil, parent, teacher, and specialist. The accentuation of attention is continuously upon pupil personal needs and interests as these are related to the good of the accepted social order. Instruction, curriculum construction, and guidance are all closely integrated in purpose, method, and accomplishment.

Conclusions, Trends, and Needed Research in Guidance and Counseling

Guidance as a profession has established its directions including a growing interest and attention to the role of the classroom teacher. Knowledge about personality development as well as the dimensions of the counseling process with its outcomes and causal bases is increasing. The counselor today meticulously considers emotional dimensions, even when dealing with clients having presumably only educational or vocational adjustment problems. Areas for further research are pointed up in the following needs:

1. More explicit expression of philosophy underlying the endeavors of guidance workers.
2. The effect of in-service training on improvement of the guidance services.
3. More effective techniques for training teachers in counseling and guidance; e.g., assisting teachers to perceive the relationship of their personality and needs to their classroom behavior.
4. More experimentation in action research by the school staff of a county, city, or building unit.
5. Development of techniques to quantify and assess the dynamics of the group process in the classroom.
6. More research on group guidance and group therapy; e.g., how successful can school counselors and school psychologists be in this field of endeavor?
7. The effect of existing curricula and textbooks on attitude formation and problem-solving; e.g., attitudes and values in relation to the world of work.
8. Establishment of criteria for identifying individuals who will be successful in counseling.

SUMMARY

Evaluation is an essential step in the guidance process and requires definite answers to the questions, "What is being attempted?" "What is being accomplished?" "How does accomplish-

ment compare with aspiration?" "What can be done to balance goals and actual achievement?" Evaluation procedures must be shared with pupils. The pupil will progress only as he recognizes and accepts goals as being personally vital and important, and as he determines his own status and growth patterns in relation to these goals. Through the process of evaluation the pupil will discover his strengths, weaknesses, problems, and special abilities.

A significant purpose of evaluation is to provide information which will help guide the pupil toward continuous learning progress in the curriculum areas. In the social studies there are the examples of citizenship, spiritual values, and children's friendships and needs selected for purposes of illustration. Examples were also discussed in the areas of writing, listening, observing, and thinking. Evaluation in quantitative thinking considered such objectives in arithmetic as (1) developing the ability to perform number operations, and (2) providing a rich variety of experiences which will assure the ability of the pupil to supply quantitative procedures effectively in social situations outside the school. In this chapter, particular consideration was given to those aspects of learning which are related to understanding and meaningfulness. In the diagnostic process of evaluating progress, pupil and teacher alike assess their individual and joint success and make plans to be more efficient in the future. Pencil-and-paper tests, almost solely the technique used in the past, should be supplemented if not surpassed by more informal procedures. Evaluation involves the major problems of choosing goals, describing the specific behavior to be evaluated, selecting experience situations in which goals can be reached, making records of progress, evaluating data, and determining plans for future action.

The general techniques for evaluating guidance services to the child are no different from those employed in any other phase of the school; that is, objectives must be formulated, specific behaviorisms described, activities must be encouraged in which the behavior can be learned, observation must be employed, the results recorded and analyzed, judgments made of possible progress, and new revisions of plans established. The function of

guidance, as it is stated here, is to provide conditions which will give the child optimum opportunity for total growth. The two general methods of evaluating the outcome of a guidance program may be listed as (1) the general-survey method, and (2) the method of systematic collection of evidence. The general-survey method is used to survey the existing guidance organization and procedures. The systematic collection of evidence method is preferable to the survey method. It may be described as defining objectives, specifying behavior, collecting evidence of desirable behavior, and replanning our procedures as a result of the diagnosis of evidence. The process accentuates the importance of behavior, rather than procedures, as the focus of attention.

The test of effective guidance is the degree to which it has facilitated the learning of each pupil. Guidance permeates all activities of the classroom and the school, and involves the co-operation of pupil, parent, teacher, and specialist.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. What is the difference between "evaluation" and "testing"?
2. What is the meaning of "democratic evaluation"?
3. Why is progress made toward accomplishing objectives in the social-studies curriculum area so difficult to evaluate?
4. How can the anecdotal record be used as an instrument of evaluation?
5. What are the limitations of present commercial tests in the evaluation of arithmetic teaching?
6. Outline a procedure for evaluating guidance services in the elementary school.
7. Make two columns. At the head of one, write "Primary Factors of Guidance," and at the head of the other, write "Secondary Factors of Guidance," and complete listings.
8. Evaluate the criteria for evaluating guidance programs used in this chapter.
9. How can the coöperation of the teacher and the special counselor be evaluated?
10. Study the criteria used to evaluate the counselor and his work. Which of these criteria could apply to the classroom teacher? Justify your decisions.

CHAPTER II

Records and Reports in Elementary School Guidance

THE IMPORTANCE OF RECORDS •

So many people are interested in the welfare of the child that unless there be confusion, duplication, and excess clerical work, it is essential that there be a wide scope of reliable and valid data, well organized into a comprehensive and detailed system of cumulative records.

The Need for Records and Reports in Guidance

Teachers are always working under the direction of some plan which has been formulated according to observation of facts. Many teachers rely on their memory and intimate acquaintance with individual children to give guidance; but in the majority of contemporary schoolrooms such incidental procedure is scarcely satisfactory. Although a teacher may have a remarkable memory, the information she collects about a child will be valueless to others unless it is recorded. Practical reasons alone, however, prevent any one from recording all the known facts about a child. Inclusion of only the most significant facts is necessary. But selection and recording are becoming more and more difficult, be-

cause of the increased number of facts being collected by a growing number of specialists.

When the isolated items of information gathered by the nurse, pediatrician, psychologist, psychiatrist, and social worker are brought together into a composite picture, guidance becomes an easier task. Unless these items of information are available, little can be accomplished by either the classroom teacher or counselor specialist.

Guidance means more than the mere gathering and recording of facts. Too many guidance programs are so concerned with record keeping that they have little time to use the records to help the child. Guidance services, for example, cannot be evaluated on the basis of number of tests given or the thickness of the cumulative folder. Yet the keeping of records is an essential element of the guidance process, for we must obtain and retain all the information possible about individual pupils. A practical system of record keeping entails a large amount of clerical work. Most of this work has had to be done by teacher or counselor. This has been a significant obstacle to the guidance program and must be eliminated whenever possible by more effective clerical help.

The Concept of the Cumulative Record

The cumulative record is an account of the child's school history which begins with his entrance into the elementary school and continues until he leaves. In some cases it may be continued for a period after he leaves school, and contains such information as type, tenure, and adjustment to employment. In the majority of schools it is a card on which have been recorded data regarding attendance, grade placement, and grades, which have been recorded from year to year; but with increasing frequency it is a folder in which have been placed successive additions of significant and comprehensive information during the years of school attendance. Theoretically, it is based on the principle of synthesis, in which the parts become integrated into a descriptive picture of the whole child including his physical appearance (photograph), character, behaviorisms, and academic achievements. The trend away from a single record card that follows the pupil

through 12 grades toward a folder type of cumulative record is significant because it reflects a growing concern for the whole child rather than merely his grades in academic subject matter or his absences and tardiness.

Many schools are using the Educational Records Bureau Cumulative Record Card suggested by the American Council on Education, which fits the ordinary letter-size file. Test results on this record are shown in both tabular and graphic form. The graphic form shows the results in terms of percentile ratings arranged according to the sigma scale. Marks, credits, and test data are shown on the front page, and the back of the card has space for information about a typical behavior, mental and emotional aspects of personality, home influences and coöperation, physical maturity, extracurricular activities and interests, accomplishments, and important experiences. Later revisions of this card place less emphasis on subjects, credits, and marks and more on behavior descriptions and evaluation of personal qualities. Space is provided for a more extensive synthesis and interpretation.

The cumulative record should reflect the philosophy and practice of the school; therefore, no school should decide to adopt a ready-made record form without first considering carefully its own objectives and curriculum. Even though a school constructs its own cumulative record form, however, much can be gained from studying the organizational plan of such cards as those proposed by the American Council on Education. In any case, it is desirable to have a cumulative-record manual to serve as guide to those personnel who make entries or who may study the materials.

The Importance of Cumulative Records

Although the cumulative record is just one important aspect of the necessary record system, the report offers the core of the data which make effective guidance possible. Neither the teacher nor special counselor will find sufficient data on the cumulative record for valuable guidance, but it is here that is found the basic information from which further study may expand. The entire

range of data needed for guidance cannot be conveniently recorded on the cumulative-record form, but these data should be included in the "packet" or folder as separate additions. The chief value of the record is its cumulative aspect; therefore, unless regular entries are made, the data may become useless. One of the important concepts pervading the cumulative record is that it presents a continuous story of the child as developing organism. Continuous records which are passed along with the pupil from year to year and school to school can greatly enhance the necessary adjustment between successive units of the school system. These records, usually described as a cumulative record, will present a clear picture of the child as he changes from year to year or even from month to month. In other words, it is inherently a growth record.

Desirable Features of a Good Record

Records are good insofar as the data they contain are accurate. Accuracy is determined not only by the reliability and validity of tests used but also by the skill of the individual who gathers and observes the data. Actual recording, too, is a determinant. For example, an anecdotal record is unlikely to be as accurate when recorded at the end of the day as when recorded at the time of observation. A good record will present data in annual divisions, so that a picture of growth increments can be easily observed. This will support another required feature; that is, the presentation of a many-faceted picture of the child with all the pertinent data in one place. Less pertinent data, considered as "feeder material," are available, but will be found in a separate place in the permanent folder. A good cumulative record is free from useless details, and frequent summaries will have prevented the information from becoming too voluminous. Closely related to this criterion is the requirement that there be a minimum of clerical work. One of the dangers of a cumulative-record system is that it may become so cumbersome that lack of clerical help will prevent it from being maintained in a usable form. A cumulative record should be flexible, permitting the material to be removed or added at the teacher's discretion. A summary of

a parent-teacher conference, for example, may be of sufficient importance to be included, especially if the parent has received a carbon copy.

A good record is characterized by simplification and organization. This requires routine summaries of data submitted, so that a busy teacher can quickly obtain a general picture of the child in a minimum of time. Simplicity is encouraged if the essential facts about any pupil are brought together and placed on one central card or set of cards, so that they can be grasped in only a few moments of study. Organization is facilitated if there has been adopted a complete and uniform system of permanent record keeping. Uniformity of permanent records is especially desirable within each school unit. Simplicity is encouraged when the record minimizes repetition. Uniformity and simplicity of organization are encouraged if a detailed manual of directions accompanies the personnel records.

One of the essential features of a cumulative record is that it is easily accessible to the home-room teacher. In fact, the location of a cumulative record rests with her. Certain information, such as the IQ, should not be made available to parents of the pupil except under the most unusual circumstances. In many cases even the home-room teacher should not have access to such information unless she has been carefully trained in the meaning and interpretation of standardized intelligence tests. A teacher who makes such remarks as, "He has a high IQ, so he's showing off," or "He is just plain dumb, so there is nothing he can do," is exhibiting evidence of incompetence. Technical data may be meaningless to, or misinterpreted by, her. If the school is fortunate enough to have a clinical psychologist or an expertly trained guidance specialist, much of the data about a pupil labeled "restricted" may be kept under the specialist's supervision.

What Information Can Be Found on the Cumulative Record?

There can be no purpose in listing here a detailed account of the items found on a cumulative record. We shall, however, refer to a few general listings. The cumulative record will contain such identifying data as name, address, date of birth, and racial

extraction; facts regarding family background and history, which include information regarding siblings, parents' plans for the child, parental marital status; facts of personal appearance (including annual photographs); facts of health; results of achievement in academic areas, including lists of books read, units of work covered, teacher's estimates of growth; facts from tests, including intelligence, achievement, diagnostic, special abilities and accomplishments; personality traits, including work habits, character development, social and character ratings, citizenship records, and interests. Space is provided for interview and anecdotal record summaries and descriptions of out-of-school activities and interests.

The cumulative record used by the Altamount Elementary School, Illinois (6:26), illustrates the content and format of a modern permanent-record system. The record is simple, easily kept, inexpensive, and provides teachers and principals with a wealth of information useful in studying the child. There is provided for each pupil a 9½ x 12 inch manila folder, inside of which is a permanent-record card slightly smaller. On the permanent-record card there is space for attendance, school-activity record, mental- and achievement-test scores, and birth data. The physical-examination record is filled out by the examining doctor when physical examinations are made, at least every four years. The forms are provided by the county health department. There is also a complete case history containing information about the child's background, his school progress, his home and family, and ratings of personality and behavior. A duplicate of the cumulative health record used by the county health department is included, with a complete record of the child's health habits or symptoms of physical defects. The child's photograph is glued on the inside of the folder. At the beginning of each year a new photograph is taken. Space is provided for a continuous anecdotal record which teachers have made of the pupil's problems and special abilities. Information about the pupil's likes and dislikes, leisure-time activities, fears and ambitions, can be obtained from the pupil's autobiography. Any other record or clipping or material of any kind which applies to the child may be slipped into the folder for future reference. These include communications from

or to parents, school insurance and clinical records, and transfer cards. The folders are kept in a record cabinet, accessible at all times to teachers. New teachers coming to the school are given the folders of their pupils at the opening of school so that they can understand the class members more readily.

Responsibilities for Providing Data and Record Forms

The cumulative-record plan for each school system should be devised by a democratically chosen committee. This committee does much more than suggest record forms. It attempts to determine what the school is doing and what it hopes to accomplish. This requires a formulation of objectives and procedures for evaluating and recording progress.

Generally, the greater responsibility for gathering and recording data for the elementary school child rests with the home-room teacher. Although the pupils can collect much information about themselves, the teacher must summarize, organize, and record it. She generally secures the information from measures of height, weight, vision, hearing, and from general group tests of intelligence and achievement. She has the responsibility, too, of making anecdotal records, which are used in conferences with parents, and in guiding the growth of the child from day to day. An important feature is the written manual (23), which instructs a clerk to record such items as identifying data, addresses, withdrawals and readmissions, family record, schools attended, school ability tests, and educational tests. The teacher is instructed to record year and grade in school, days attended, days absent, marks in school, and personality data. Generally speaking, the teacher does not record incidents of law-breaking or situations involving moral or ethical relationships. She should record only that information that will help the child develop into an effective citizen.

Making the Test Record Meaningful

In the interests of brevity much of the material appearing on the cumulative record is symbolized and abbreviated. This is a misleading, uneconomical, and meaningless practice in the case of standardized tests. Something more is needed than the name

of the test, raw score, or even the percentile rank. The following information summarized by Roeber appears to be prerequisite to a meaningful record of tests:

1. Sufficient description of the test to distinguish it from all others including the date of revision.
2. The form and level of the test.
3. The raw score received.
4. The percentile rank, standard score, T-score, mental age, and so on.
5. A brief description of the group upon which norms are based. It would be helpful to have the additional information of the mean and standard deviation of the performance for the norm group.
6. The probable error of a test or parts of a test should be given.
7. The name and position of the person who gave the test.
8. Date when the test was given.
9. A description of any unusual test administration conditions (20:397).

Tests can provide valuable information to those who understand them, but when interpreted and used by an amateur they may be frightful instruments of quackery. A raw score of 95 is meaningless, but to the amateur who thinks in percentages it may represent nearness to perfection. An amateur who administers the Binet is unlikely to obtain any result of value. Furthermore, an IQ determined by administering a Binet to a 6-year-old should have different consideration than an IQ of the same child six years later obtained by the use of the same test. Proper rapport between the test administrator and the pupil who takes a test is essential for valid results. Besides human beings themselves, there are other factors which may have effect on the test results; e.g., physical condition of the child and physical conditions of the environment, such as heat, humidity, or extraneous sounds. The proper reporting of test results is an essential feature of guidance procedures.

The use of tests assumes such importance in the guidance program that some writers suggest a separate guidance and testing record card (16). On it would be listed results of mental ability, achievement, reading, prognostic, aptitude, personality, and social-usage tests given in grades one to twelve inclusive. In East Hampton, Connecticut, an administrator and two guidance assistants set up a program of standardized tests to obtain a picture

of the interests, abilities, and needs of each pupil. The testing program has six major operations, of which the teacher is responsible for three: (1) administering, (2) correcting, and (3) scoring. Guidance specialists are responsible for the remaining three: (4) tabulating, (5) summarizing, and (6) follow-up. The data are forwarded to the administrator and kept on file for the benefit of the classroom teachers, who use them for such procedures as grouping pupils within a class, and so on.

The Cumulative Record in Use

The use of the cumulative record is well illustrated in the procedures of the "case conference." Present at such a conference will be all or selected members from the school staff, such as the school principal, the teacher, the special counselor, the school nurse and pediatrician, the psychologist and psychiatrist, the speech correctionist, the "remedial teacher," the social worker, the juvenile judge, the parents, the pupil, and any other person who has a direct responsibility for the child's welfare. The conference begins by presenting facts from the cumulative record. To these facts is then added information contributed in turn by each one present who knows anything about the child. Of special significance will be the items of information added from the teacher's anecdotal records. As the facts are presented, questions will be asked by anyone in attendance. The information will then be diagnosed, and the important items are selected and brought together into a meaningful synthesis. Relationships of home, school, play, and neighborhood are integrated into a dynamic and unified pattern. At the end of the conference a summary of the proceedings, including diagnosis and prognosis, become part of the cumulative folder.

The case conference centered upon the pupil, and recorded facts about him which have been assembled over a long period of time, becomes an important medium for in-service training toward developing a guidance concept of education. Such a conference is more effective than the record alone can be for revealing the total personality of the child; yet the results of the conference become a part of the permanent record itself.

The cumulative record contributes to guidance by providing

a sound basis for understanding the pupil. It becomes the first source of study by teachers who wish to discover clues to the causes of behavior difficulties, and for teachers who wish to become acquainted with new pupils or to determine the capacity of their pupils. It is useful in diagnosing causes of nonprogression or retarded progression, for study leading toward curriculum revision and improvement of teaching, and for aiding articulation between advancing school groups. Because data have been periodically evaluated, appropriately summarized, and carefully organized, the cumulative record provides an excellent background for interview, counseling, or making reports to parents.

The above uses presuppose that certain criteria have been met. For example, the information must be comprehensive, reliable, and accurate; it must have been recorded immediately after it was obtained; it must be accurately dated; it must provide data over a relatively long period of time. No conclusion can be confidently made on the basis of any single item of information. All items of information are interrelated and must be interpreted by intelligent judgment in terms of the entire body of data.

Records and Reports as an Aid to Pupil Learning

Records and reports are not limited to administrative routine alone. In a modern guidance program they become an integral part of the learning process in relation to evaluation of individual progress and self-development. One sixth-grade teacher, for example, who wished to inculcate good work habits in the lives of her pupils, planned a chart with them upon which progress could be recorded. Each pupil kept a Record of Progress folder in which was kept all evidence of progress toward coöperatively planned goals. An example of a self-progress work sheet found in this folder appears below:

WORK HABITS THAT HELP US LEARN

MTWTF MTWTF MTWTF

1. I worked well with others.....
2. I worked steadily and quietly
3. I worked without much help
4. I finished what I started

WORK HABITS THAT HELP US LEARN

5. I finished my work on time
6. I am neat in care of materials
7. I do my work neatly
8. I clean up after work

The teacher suggested the intervals at which this sheet was to be checked. Checking always followed a discussion of what each of these statements meant. Specific examples were always used for illustration. Later this work-habit check list became a valuable adjunct to making periodical reports to parents.

Another teacher who used check-sheet records as a learning device found the following record form helpful for evaluating progress in written communication:

PROOFREADING

1. Placement
2. Title
3. Sentences
4. Paragraphs
5. Capitals
6. Periods
7. Commas
8. Quotations
9. Other punctuation
10. Spelling
11. Abbreviations
12. Contractions
13. Correct usage
14. Possessives
15. Plurals

After the teacher makes corrections of written work it is handed back to the pupils, who record their difficulties on this sheet. The next time he writes, the child studies the check sheet where he can see at a glance just what he has to observe to make progress.

A similar check sheet is used for handwriting and appears as follows:

HANDWRITING

Speed	
Size of letters	
Alignment	
Spacing	
Endings	
Slant	
Form of letters	
Good posture	

These items are checked in which the pupil appears to be strongest. He then works on the unchecked items to bring them up to normal.

An excellent example of the use of records and reports to encourage learning is the use of the card (report card) in communicating with parents. We may use for an example the report card described by Peters on which teacher and pupil check progress in citizenship and personality development. Pages 2 and 3 of this report card contain the following items:

PROGRESS IN CITIZENSHIP AND PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Explanation of Marks:

S—Strength in the trait

N—Normal development

W—Weakness in the trait—An area requiring special attention in the school and at home

I—Improvement (to be used only after W has been received)

Report Period

1 2 3 4

1. *Social*

- Respects school property and property of others.
- Accepts group responsibility (leadership).....
- Makes and keeps friends.....
- Is courteous and considerate.....
- Respects school regulations.....

2. *Emotional*

- Is neat and clean in body and clothing.....
- Has self-confidence.....

Report Period

1 2 3 4

3. *Physical*

- (a) Is neat and clean in body and clothing.....
- (b) Sits, stands, and walks correctly (posture).....
- (c) Takes part readily in play activities.....
- (d) Reflects good sleep and rest habits.....

4. *Work habits*

- (a) Starts and completes work on time... ..
- (b) Tries to do his best.....
- (c) Works neatly.....
- (d) Finds things to do without being told.....

5. *Appreciation and Participation in:*

A. Music

- (a) Enjoys hearing music.....
- (b) Takes part readily in music activities.....

B. Art (fine and practical)

- (a) Enjoys beautiful things.....
- (b) Takes part readily in art activities.....
- (c) Shows originality in expressing ideas.....

C. Literature, Clubs, Assemblies, Hobbies

- (a) Reads widely for enjoyment.....
- (b) Takes part readily in club and assembly activities
- (c) Has a healthy interest in hobbies.....

Attendance and Health

Days absent

Times tardy

Weight

Height (18:42)

REPORTING PUPIL PROGRESS**Democracy in School Reporting**

The "mark" as a symbol of progress (or lack of progress) has become a part of the traditional American public school. At six-week intervals throughout the school year, teachers are spending excessive time in marking the report cards of from 18 to 250 pupils in elementary school classes. The card upon which the marks are recorded vary in size from a total area of 247 square inches to an area of 39 square inches (17). When we con-

sider the time required to construct tests and to calculate test results, we may well ask the question, "Are teachers more than public-employed testers and recorders?" If not, is such labor worthy of four years of college training?

The methods of reporting pupil progress reflect the philosophy upon which the school program is built. A teacher who uses the percentage system in determining marks is working under a far different philosophy than one who reports progress only by informal interview. Regardless of method used, however, both teachers would agree that the marking process is an integral part of the learning process. It is quite evident, however, that an elementary teacher overloaded with the clerical duties of recording and reporting has little time to plan and direct the learning experiences advocated by modern educational philosophy. Teachers will also agree that marks are something to which children will adjust, although such adjustment may vary from satisfactory incentive to mechanisms leading to maladjustment. Teachers who have noted the results of marking observe that dissension over grades appears to come from upper-ability groups. Does this indicate an indifference and resignation to marks on the part of average and low-ability pupils?

With an increasing frequency schools are recognizing that evaluations are not procedures which should be abandoned, but, rather, are a vital part of the educative process. Reports of pupil progress can be of value to pupil, teacher, and parent, but they must be related to objectives and learning activities. The traditional form of report card has been based upon teacher judgment and to that extent is most undemocratic. Democratic procedures in school reporting are far more effective. Let us, for example, examine a democratic procedure tried in Jackson, Mississippi (11). In the public schools of this city the school faculty, the school administration, and the school patrons met to revise the reporting system. The group was divided into grade meetings to elect one representative from each grade to membership on a committee of revision. The principals elected one representative, as did the parent-teacher council. Surveys were made of literature in the field, reports were given on the practices of other school systems, and requests of school patrons were highly regarded.

The final recommendations gave special emphasis to the development of health, work, and social habits; made provisions for teacher-parent conferences; and allotted space on the report card for parental comments to the teacher. Accompanying the report card was a separate sheet for the teacher to use in providing additional information.

The work of many individuals is necessary before a satisfactory plan of reporting children's progress can be developed. Teachers and parents who plan such reporting will find that some measure other than marks will be necessary to appraise child growth and development. Groups of adults concerned with educating the child must arrive at general understanding of such topics as the need for reports as measuring devices, trends in reporting progress, principles of guidance in report making, characteristics of a good report card, and what parents desire to know about their children. The final conclusions will result in a reporting system which reflects the general aims and values of education. A school which attempts democratically to improve reporting procedures will accomplish much more than the usual exchange of one uniform set of symbols for another, equally obscure.

Systems and Theories of the Marking Process

Traditionally, the report card is an instrument which helps the pupil to learn because it clarifies goals and aids him in measuring his progress toward accomplishing them. Furthermore, it helps the teacher to understand the child by providing an avenue for rapport with the parent. Finally, the report card helps teachers to understand more fully the nature of some of the aspects of the curriculum.

The bases for marking pupils can be classified into three categories: comparison, effort, and degree of achieving goals chosen by the pupil or his group. Of these three, comparison is doubtless the most traditional and the most vicious. Marking by comparison emphasizes competition rather than coöperation, and if the marking is to be accurate all pupils must complete the same exercises and take the same examinations. Comparison encourages such terms as "better than," "brighter than," "poorer than," and "as good as." Parents want to know how near to the top of

the class their children are. Marking by comparison ignores individual purposes, interests, and special capacities. It requires that each pupil do his work individually without help from friends and that he never offer help to them. Needless to say, such learning experiences are the direct antithesis of democratic ideals. Unfortunately, the comparison system has been used for so long that parents and pupils have been "conditioned" to the mark rather than to the learning; thus the mark alone has become the acceptable goal of activity.

Some teachers who realize the evil effects of marking on the basis of comparison of individuals have attempted to award marks on the basis of individual effort. A child, for example, deserves an A if he tries hard and conforms to the system of order of the school, regardless of whether he memorizes or recites as well as his classmates. Marking under this system is done without reference to fixed standards or to the work of other children except in the "teacher's comments" and in the recording of standard test scores. Even if such a system of marking were desirable, it would be impossible because no one has been able to measure effort accurately. In actual practice the procedure of such marking has developed into a system of reproof or approval by the teacher.

A third basis for marking is an evaluation of the degree to which a pupil has reached the goals which were accepted or chosen by or for him under teacher guidance. Frequently, pupil goals are so closely related to group goals that group evaluation is also possible. The selection of goals and self-appraisal and group appraisal of the pupil are all part of the educational process, and provide the pupil with experiences which will enable him to adjust to a demanding world and to get along with other people.

Methods of marking range from percentage grades to a conference procedure of which no written report is made. The transition may be traced from percentage marks to letter symbols, to satisfactory and unsatisfactory, to the use of anecdotal reports and the parent-teacher conference. The transition stated in another way is from the pupil-teacher conference, to notes written by the teacher to parents, to pupils themselves reporting to teach-

ers, to pupils making written and oral evaluations of teachers. Regardless of method, pupils and parents should understand the records and reports in use and realize that service to the pupil is more important than the keeping of accounts. Many marking systems have little meaning to the parents, who have no basis for interpreting the school's program.

The formal report may be rightfully accused of having done more harm than good because of its unreliability and because of the hazard it offers to the mental health of the child. Children should not be worried, or afraid, or ashamed to bring reports home to parents. Traditional reports have been the cause of parental scoldings, commands to work harder, deprivations of pleasures, punishments, and monetary bribes. Punishment that frightens the child makes him anxious, dishonest, nervous, and resentful toward school. It is to be expected that forward-looking teachers who recognize these unfavorable influences are striving to find methods of reporting that will promote rather than hinder maximum child growth.

Characteristics of a Good Report of Pupil Progress

A report of progress should represent the philosophy and purpose of the school system, reflecting a consideration of the whole child and giving direction to the teaching-learning process. Illustrative of this principle is the statement of philosophy and aims appearing on the first page of a pupil-progress report suggested by Lucas:

STATEMENT OF PHILOSOPHY AND AIMS

This school recognizes that progress can be expected only in terms of the ability of each child. In the broadest sense, this includes his physical, intellectual, emotional, and social levels of development.

Realizing that pupils differ in respect to these traits, grades will be given to indicate how well your child is working up to his individual ability and should not be used as a basis for comparison with other children. . . .

The schools of Vanport City try to do the following things for your child:

To help him develop an understanding of his world.

To help him develop desirable attitudes and behavior in his social relationships.

To help the child share his ideas with others and to receive ideas from others through learning to get along with others, to listen well, to speak clearly, to read with understanding, to write clearly, to spell correctly.

To help the child understand the interrelationships of living things and living things to their environment.

To help the child learn the value of numbers and their use in everyday living.

To help the child enjoy many activities so that he may have a rich and interesting life.

To help the child develop habits and attitudes which further his personal health and the health of those about him.

To help the child develop toward these objectives, learning experiences are planned in such areas as practice in living, language arts, science, mathematics, library, art, music, shop, crafts, physical education and homemaking.

To the Parent or Guardian:

Your child's welfare and best development is the great common interest of the home and school. These institutions should cooperate in the training for work, citizenship, worthy use of leisure time and ethical character. Please examine this Account of Progress, discuss it with your child and use it as a basis for parent-teacher conferences. If any part of this is not satisfactory, confer with principal or teacher (13:272).

Because each child is unique in interests, abilities, needs, and past experiences, the report should avoid the use of a marking system which makes unnecessary comparisons among pupils. A report should indicate a pupil's progress toward achieving the aims of modern education. This will be more inclusive than the mere retention of subject matter or the acquisition of subject-matter skills. Considerable emphasis will be placed on the development of understandings and the acquisition of desirable attitudes and habits of behavior. A good report will be suitable to the continuous-progress theory of advancement and cannot be used as a device for promotion. It will provide an opportunity for the child to assist in evaluating his own growth and stimulate conferences between child, parent, and teacher, thereby providing

NINTH

[illegible]

Code: 1—Outstanding
2—Consistently Good
3—Good

4—Erratic or Fault
5—Not Acceptable

SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

(A check (✓) indicates the teacher's best judgment in quality of participation)

	1st Quarter	2nd Quarter	3rd Quarter	4th Quarter	
Clubs					Unusual interest and ability
					Moderate activity
					Little or no enthusiasm
School Service					Unusual interest and ability
					Moderate activity
					Little or no enthusiasm
Home Room Activities					Unusual interest and ability
					Moderate activity
					Little or no enthusiasm

ATTENDANCE

	Days of school	Days absent
1st Quarter		
2nd Quarter		
3rd Quarter		
4th Quarter		

Notel

School Service—includes participation in student body government, committees and special assignments made by the school administration.

Citizenship—includes behavior, effort, attitude, courtesy and response to classroom activities directed by teachers.

Scholarship—includes actual progress in subject matter.

a means of better acquaintance. A parent who reads or hears a report of his child's progress should know more about how his child gets along with others, what difficulties he may be having and how they may be overcome, what special abilities he has or does not appear to have, his physical handicaps or strengths, and his progress toward desirable emotional and social personality traits.

Coöperating with Parents in Reporting Pupil Progress

The traditional report card with its percentage or letter grade system has been a source of dissatisfaction to the parent as well as the teacher. What the report means to the parent is usually in terms of what it meant when he was a pupil himself. Generally, it indicates how well the pupil is getting along with the teacher and school officials. The report card has often been a basis for complaint about unfair consideration of the pupil by the teacher or about poor teaching methods. Parents have used the report card as a means of control over their children by providing excuses for denying privileges; for other parents, reports have been sources of pride. Many parents, however, do not know the real meaning of the traditional report card. How can they, when the teachers who mark them are uncertain about the evidence upon which the mark is given? Conscientious parents have even found the more modern report, with its lengthy comments on habits, attitudes, skills, and abilities, inadequate because it does not give them sufficient information (3).

Parents have been conditioned to the traditional marks A, B, C, D, and F. If radical change from these marks is proposed without a gradual accompanying parental-education program, the parent will be confused, disturbed, and perhaps somewhat critical. Many schools, in various stages of transition from a traditional to a modern, progressive system of reporting, are using modifications of the letter-grade system. Note, for example, the following attempt at modification:

REPORT CARD QUESTIONNAIRE

Your Child Is Required to Return This Sheet to His Teacher

Dear Parents: The Vanport City Schools wish to work in closest co-operation with you. The marks on this card are the results of many

hours of study of your child. We are eager for you to understand this progress report fully. Please check your understanding of the card in either of the two following ways: (1) Answer the four questions below, or (2) Check one of the two statements. We will appreciate it if you will do both. Answers to the questions are given below the space provided for your signature.

1. On all items other than grade level achievement, pupils are given marks of A, B, C, D, or F. On these items one child's marks are not to be compared with those of another. True..... False.....
2. It is impossible on this card for a child who is slow in learning but who does his very best to get A's and B's and still be rated as below grade level. True..... False.....
3. A bright child who does not use his abilities may receive C's and D's, and F's and still be rated above grade level in achievement. Yes..... No.....
4. It is reasonable to expect a child who is frequently absent or tardy to have a lower grade level achievement mark than he would otherwise have. Yes..... No.....

Statements:

1. I understand the marking system of the report card well enough to discuss it with my child. Yes..... No.....
2. I have questions concerning this card and would like to have an opportunity to discuss them with my child's teacher. Yes..... No.....

Parent's Signature.....

ANSWERS: 1. True 2. Yes 3. Yes 4. Yes

Report cards are to be discussed at least once at parent-teacher club meetings during the year. The plan is for a panel of teachers to present the card and to give parents an opportunity to ask questions (13).

A combination of procedures have been described in preparing parents for new report cards. Undoubtedly the most satisfactory plan is to permit the parents to have a share in the revision. A common plan for using the suggestions of parents is to use a proposed report as a trial and to ask the parents to indicate their opinions. In Leonard, North Dakota,

Parents were first advised of the plan for changing the grading system by means of a letter and a sample copy of the proposed new report card form—and (it was also) presented to the parent-teacher associa-

tion. . . . Parents were asked to indicate their opinion of the new form by comments written on the back. The report card covers the child's health, work, social habits, and personality traits. He is marked each six weeks on several points under each of these heads. S indicates "satisfactory"; S.I., "shows improvement"; N.I., "needs to improve." The card provides a continuous record of growth in pounds and inches, records attendance and punctuality, and shows the child's grades for each subject, indicated by A, B, C, D, and F. There is also a checklist of miscellaneous messages for parents (3).

Retaining letter marks yet changing the basic concept which they represent is an excellent transitional device:

EXPLANATION OF GRADING SYSTEM

All items other than the grade level achievement are graded after careful consideration of a child's physical, social, emotional, and mental development.

- A Student is doing *all* that should be expected of him.
- B Student is doing *nearly all* that should be expected of him.
- C Student is doing *less than* should be expected of him.*
- D Student is doing *much less than* should be expected of him.
- E Student is making *no noticeable progress*.

Grade Level Achievement ratings are determined by standardized tests, teacher-made tests, and careful teacher observation, and indicate student accomplishment.

$\frac{1}{2}$ year or more above Grade Level by ()

Average for Grade Level by ()

$\frac{1}{2}$ year or more below Grade Level by ()

When no marks appear one of the following conditions is indicated: Sufficient information about pupil is lacking. A mark does not apply at this time, or pupil's work is incomplete. (For example, the marks of a fourth grade child would 4 +, 4, or 4 -, regardless of how advanced or how retarded the pupil may be in achievement.) (3:31)

In Terrill, Texas, a new type of report card adopted by the elementary school substitutes N (needs to improve), or R (requests an interview with parents), for the conventional A-B-C-D conduct notations. When no marks are given, the child has been satisfactory in citizenship, work, health, and safety. Skills and subject matter are graded by I (improving), N, and R. The lack of marks, again, indicates a satisfactory status (14).

The Parent-Teacher Conference

The best form of reporting pupil progress is the holding of frequent conferences between parent and teacher. The majority of schools have accepted this procedure on the preschool and primary-grade levels as a substitute for the traditional marking symbols, but an extension of this practice to intermediate and upper-grade levels is still considered an innovation. The conference recognizes the school's frequent need of the guidance that only parents of pupils can provide. Traditionally, reports of pupil progress have come from the school to the home. The conference procedure assumes that reports of progress can also be made from the home to the school. Teachers need an opportunity to present a direct verbal report to the home, and the reciprocal report from the home environment aids the teacher to understand the child. By means of the conference parents get to know more about their children's social growth, emotional stability, attitudes toward school work and fellow pupils, and an indication of achievement in academic areas. Parents develop a better appreciation of what the school is trying to do for the child, and teachers often learn facts which foster better appreciation of the child's handicaps or assets. Stenographic records of what parents think about conferences indicate favorable opinion:

I learned to know the teachers better. In order to report by way of the conference you have to understand the children. Parents could take more interest in their children's work at school and as a result would be more coöperative with the teachers and the school if conferences are continued.

It is the best way to get acquainted with the teachers. My child knew that I was coming for a conference and as a consequence she will be more interested in her school work. I enjoyed the contact.

I discovered things about my child that I would not get from a written report or in any other way.

Conferences are a grand idea. They are all helpful because teachers and parents can discuss problems that arise.

I would have been discouraged over my child's report if it had not been explained. Teachers must have the welfare of the children at heart to give so much of their time in this way.

It is the only way that teachers and parents can work cooperatively and it helps in closer integration between home and school (25).

The conference also has disadvantages which should not be overlooked. For example, most of the conferences will be held with the mother because the father is usually at work. Occasionally, both father and mother have full-time employment; thus the teacher is required to return to the school during evening hours for the conference. Some parents are uncoöperative and refuse to visit the teacher. Of course, the traditional report card would be valueless to such parents also. It cannot be denied that the conference method is time-consuming for both teacher and parent. This disadvantage can be overcome partially, however, by holding conferences at school during the course of the school day at a time when teachers are free, and by scheduling the conferences less frequently than the former traditional reports were made. Two or three conferences per year have been found sufficient, especially if the first conference can be held in the early autumn. School is dismissed at 2 P.M. in some cities for parent conferences at least once each report period. Each teacher is responsible for inviting from four to six parents to attend a 20- to 30-minute conference on a reserve-time-schedule basis. The classroom teacher should see at least one parent from each family during the school year.

The effectiveness of the parent-teacher conference can be enhanced through observing some rather simple regulations. In the first place, parents must be prepared. Unless parents understand and are in sympathy with the conference plan, it cannot succeed. A check list sent to the parent early in the fall of the year will generally stimulate interest in a conference. The check list may, for example, contain specific items well organized in the form of such objectives as understanding of subject matter, clarity of thinking, ability to work with others, contribution to the class, ability to express ideas, creativeness, open-mindedness, respon-

sibility, work habits. The pupil's progress toward the goal may be indicated by checks in columns headed "Acceptable," or "Improvement Needed." It is convenient for each teacher to have a conference form to serve as a guide for the discussion. The form would include the areas of social, emotional, physical, and academic growth. The conference should be based on anecdotal records, the cumulative record, and samples of the pupil's work. After the conference is finished the parent should be given some form of written report. It may be in the form of an outline indicating the pupil's progress or a summary of mutual plans for the future. Certainly it should be something more than a carbon copy of the conference report form or of the typical card. The conference is not a panacea for all parent and school friction, but it does represent the best in pupil-progress reporting. Successful continuance of the method requires thorough in-service training, close coöperation between the classroom teacher and school administration, and a school staff above average in training and educational philosophy.

The procedures for a parent-teacher conference are also applicable here. Directly related to the conference as a system of reporting is the check list similar to that currently used by San Jose, California, which follows:

SAN JOSE UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

..... School
 Child's Name..... Teacher.....
 Grade..... Date.....

TEACHER-PARENT CONFERENCE CHECK SHEET

(✓) indicates child is making satisfactory progress

Relationships

Responds satisfactorily to suggestions and direction.....
 Works and plays well with other children.....
 Is dependable and responsible.....
 Other:

Work Habits

Concentrates for a reasonable length of time.....	_____
Works independently.....	_____
Listens well.....	_____
Follows directions.....	_____
Finishes work on time.....	_____
Works neatly.....	_____
Other:	_____

Skills

Progressing satisfactorily in reading.....	_____
Progressing satisfactorily in arithmetic.....	_____
Progressing satisfactorily in spelling.....	_____
Progressing satisfactorily in writing.....	_____
Progressing satisfactorily in speech.....	_____

Reporting Pupil Progress by Informal Letter

Even the traditional cards generally include messages to parents, ranging from a full page of explanations and recommendations to a short paragraph asking parents to examine the card, sign, and return it. Parents are informed that their signatures do not constitute approval of the marks and that they should feel free to visit the school and confer with the teacher and principal. Some schools, however, have discontinued the use of the report card entirely and have substituted in its place a personal letter sent out for a few pupils at a time, to avoid long and intensive periods of writing. The teacher informally reports the child's strengths and weaknesses and invites the parent to visit the school for a conference. Occasionally the teacher and principal report jointly on statements of philosophy, objectives, and suggestions to parents. Values of periodical reports are emphasized in which the school hopes to guide the child in making growth through various types of school experiences.

Significant among the newer practices of reporting in the elementary school is an informal letter written to the parent by the pupil himself. Young children, of course, can be expected to do little more than check a list of items, such as "I can read the whole book about Peter and Judy," or, "I come to school each

day with clean hands and fingernails." These checks are accompanied by a note from the teacher explaining the importance of self-evaluation and the need for parent coöperation in the guidance of healthful living. Older children in the intermediate and upper grades are able to write personal letters to parents describing the ways in which they wish to make improvements. In a pupil-teacher conference both young and more mature children can agree with the teacher upon a verbal description of development, which can be recorded and sent to parents. This is an excellent technique to provide pupils an opportunity to select goals and to practice self-appraisal. It is helpful in all cases for a carbon copy of letters written to parents to be placed in the cumulative record. Accumulated over a period of years, these letters become invaluable for guidance purposes.

A sample letter to parents and other people interested in the child:

SAN JOSE UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT
San Jose 11, California
Lowell School

June 15,

Dear Mr. and Mrs. Swanson:

Since we were unable to arrange a conference I am using this method of reporting Billy's progress in school.

Billy is a very likable boy whom it is a pleasure to have in school. He makes friends easily with his classmates and with adults; for example, the custodian. Everyone likes him and is glad to see him.

In his school work, your boy is making excellent progress. He reads with much more than average ability for his grade. He is quite artistic and has shown signs of originality in some of the drawings he has made. Although he does not like number work very much, he does as well in this activity as most of the children. He is learning to spell and to write short sentences. While not particularly musical, he sings with a great deal of enthusiasm.

Billy is one of the natural leaders of the group. When difficulties arise, the other children look to him for suggestions. He almost always has something to offer. This ability to lead the other children sometimes causes a little trouble for him. To the suggestions given by others he is often quite intolerant. He is inclined to minimize what the others have to offer and to insist on his own way being followed. Billy needs

to be led to see that other children have a right to make suggestions and that the group should be left free to adopt the device that seems best to them.

In looking after personal belongings Billy also needs some help. He is inclined to throw his coat and cap on the floor rather than hang them on his hook. Often his rubbers are left in the aisle where they may be kicked or stumbled over by the other children. Perhaps you can help with this, Mrs. Swanson, by insisting that he take care of his clothes and playthings at home if he does not already do so.

All things considered, you can be happy over the development shown. He is growing normally in height and weight and seems to be quite healthy. He usually gets along well with the group and with everyone else with whom he comes in contact. He is well adjusted to the school and apparently is happy while here.

When you have time, one or both of you, please try to come to school and visit us. Your coming would be an inspiration to Billy and would give us an opportunity to coöperate in his development. We would be very happy to have you come at any time.

Very sincerely yours,

Teacher

Principal

To Whom It May Concern:

Billy Swanson has attended the Lowell School for two years. He has worked in the first and second grades.

His attendance has been regular and he has made continuing progress in all of the skills as well as in social adjustment. At present he has completed reading "Friends and Neighbors" and has mastered the number facts through the tens. He also did well last year in making the transition from printscript to cursive.

Billy makes friends easily and is considered a leader by his classmates. He is trying to learn how to accept suggestions gracefully.

We are sorry Billy is leaving. We shall miss him.

Very truly yours,

Teacher

Principal

School

Records and Reports for Guidance of Pupil Health

The program of medical inspection and health service has developed into a broad concept now commonly called the health-

guidance program. Guidance of individual pupil health is an essential integral of the general guidance program, but because of its significance it requires special record forms and reports which become part of the pupil's permanent record file. Summaries can be found on the general cumulative record, but the detailed health data should be available in a separate cumulative division ready for inspection by anyone who wishes to make further study.

Data of specific significance to health must be collected from the parents, physician, dentist, nurse, and classroom teacher. Conferences with parents should yield data of health history, including a record of medical and dental care before the child started school. The teacher and nurse make daily health inspections and observations, weigh the child and measure his height at least twice a year, and make records of the status of eyes, ears, nose, throat, teeth, skin, posture, and nutrition.

After noting that maintaining and improving mental health are not simple tasks Longsdale and Nance suggest that affirmative answers to such questions as the following indicate that the elementary school is playing a proper role:

1. Regardless of differences in social, economic, racial, or religious status, is each child made to feel that he is a needed and wanted member of the group?
2. Is each child able to contribute to the activities of the classroom?
3. Is there provision for meeting the physical needs of each child?
4. Is it possible for individuals to make special contributions through their particular interests and talents?
5. Are efforts made to minimize unfavorable differences in physical appearance, dress, and abilities of children?
6. After considering the age and physical and mental development of the child, are the expectancies of the home and school realistic?
7. Are conditions arranged so that no child ever fails or is embarrassed because of situations over which he has no control?
8. Do children know why they fail and [are they] given instructions on how to improve?
9. Is each child able to achieve and to feel a sense of worth-whileness in his accomplishments?
10. Are the curriculum and classrooms adjusted and organized so that all children can experience success?

11. Are supervisors available to help teachers make these adjustments?
12. Are unassigned teachers available to relieve regular teachers when the need arises?
13. Is a sufficient variety of instructional materials available?
14. Are fewer than 25 children enrolled in the intermediate and upper-grade classrooms and fewer than 20 in the primary?
15. Are evaluations made according to the child's own growth rather than in comparison with others?
16. Are rewards and punishments inherent in the learning situation?
17. Are extrinsic rewards and excessive competition avoided?
18. Is the testing program organized and administered so that it does not threaten mental health?
19. Does each child know the extent of his progress?
20. Are parent-teacher conferences used to report pupil progress to parents?
21. Are permanent records for each child available to each teacher?
22. Are children advanced from year to year with their age groups?
23. Is a thorough study made of each child before he is accelerated or retained?
24. Are teachers alert to the symptoms of excessive tension in themselves and in the children?
25. Are in-service activities arranged to provide opportunity for teachers to increase their knowledge of human growth and development and to keep abreast of research findings in mental health?
26. Is a well-selected library of professional books and magazines on mental health topics available?
27. Are children with special emotional needs continuously identified?
28. Does the teacher help children to form friendships?
29. Are such specialists as the psychologist or the psychiatrist available?
30. Are the services of a mental health center available in the community?
31. Do the parents and the staff of the school work together to increase their understanding of the emotional needs of children?
32. Do the personnel of the school work with other interested citizens to stimulate and encourage community mental health projects? (13:22).

A satisfactory form for presenting data of health history is illustrated by the form used in Hartford, Connecticut.

HEALTH HISTORY¹

<i>Disease</i>	<i>Date of Sickness</i>	<i>Disease</i>	<i>Date of Sickness</i>
Diphtheria		Smallpox	
Measles		Infantile Paralysis	
Whooping Cough		Discharging Ears	
Scarlet Fever		Pneumonia	
Rheumatism		Convulsions	
Frequent Colds		Mumps	
Chorea			

<i>Special Treatments or Tests</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Results or Other Comments</i>
Smallpox Vaccination		
Diphtheria Immunization		
Schick Test		
Mantoux Test		
X-Ray		
Notes by nurse or teacher on school adjustments, causes of absence or special recommendations.		
.....		
Date		

Health Record—Hartford Schools

Name	
Address	
School	
Grade	Date (Month and Year)
Room No.	Age
Height—Inches	Heart
Weight—Actual	Lungs
Weight—Average	Teeth—Permanent
Vision—R	—Temporary
—L	Gums
Vision—with glasses—R	Throat
—L	Nose
Eye Defects	Orthopedic
Ear Defects	Nervous
Lymph Nodes	Nutrition

¹ Used with the permission of the Board of Education, Hartford, Connecticut.

<i>Disease</i>	<i>Date of Sickness</i>	<i>Disease</i>	<i>Date of Sickness</i>
Thyroid		Skin	
Parent			
Physician			
Nurse			

To Teachers: The marks above may be interpreted by the following:
Marks of 1 and 2 indicate normal condition.

Marks of 3 and 4 indicate that examination for diagnosis, and treatment, if necessary, should be made by family physician or dentist.

Vision—20/20 and 20/30 indicate normal vision, all other fractions indicate need of further examination or treatment.

C—Corrected: Tr.—Treated: N.I.O.—No information obtained: N.T.A.—No treatment advised.

Note that on this health-history record can be found identifying data and personal history of diseases, accidents, operations, immunizations, and results of dental and eye examinations. Health examinations reveal need for special treatment of certain abnormal (unhealthy) physical conditions. The coöperation of the parent is essential; therefore, it is convenient to inform parents through the use of a form letter. Again we take an example from Hartford, Connecticut, of a form letter to parents:

..... 19—

To the Parents of

At the regular health examination of this pupil a condition of the nose or throat was noticed which in the opinion of our school physician should be investigated by your private physician.

Many serious conditions are encouraged by abnormal or unhealthy tonsils and adenoids, such as severe and frequent colds, ear infections, and contagious diseases. The usual treatment is removal of the tonsils and adenoids by operation. This is a relatively simple operation, but of course it should not be done unless there are definite reasons for doing it.

We recommend that you see your physician about this pupil's nose and throat unless you have recently consulted him on this question. The abnormal conditions seen by our school physician are underlined below. If you present this information to your doctor he will understand why further examination was recommended.

Respectfully yours,

School Nurse

To the Private Physician:

This pupil is being referred for further examination and advice concerning the nose and throat because at the time of examination at school the items underlined below were noted:

1. History of frequent colds
2. History of mouth breathing
3. History of frequent sore throat
4. History of rheumatic pains or chorea
5. History of frequent middle ear diseases
6. Marked hypertrophy of tonsils
7. Observable tonsillar infection
8. Infection of faucial pillars
9. Tonsils pitted and scarred
10. Cervical dentinitis
11. Demonstrable obstruction to nasal breathing

Respectfully yours,

.....M.D.

Close and continuous association of pupil and teacher enables the teacher to detect many health items which may be overlooked in the general physical examination given by the school nurse or physician. In previous chapters we have mentioned the importance of apparent inattention, lack of interest, apparent boredom, or continuous and unnecessary acts of aggression. Observations throughout the school day can be quickly recorded on a pupil health card similar to the following:

Name of pupil
 Name of teacher
 Date report is submitted

(Place a check mark by each symptom)

Eyes

Ears

Crusted or swollen eyelids	Frequent ear discharge
Red and inflamed eyes	Itches
Crossed eyes	Inattentive to questions
Discharge from eyes	Speaks in a monotone
Squint	Voice too loud or too soft
Holds eyes near print	Listens very intently
Frequent headaches	Ignores teacher's directions
Sensitiveness to light	Spells of dizziness

(Place a check mark by each symptom)

*Eyes**Ears*

Unwilling to wear glasses	Noises in ears
Eyes tremble or twitch	Excess wax

*Nose and Throat**Apparent Emotional Disturbance*

Breathes through mouth	Stutters
Throat is frequently sore	Tics
Frequent colds	Nervous
Speech defects	Shy
Chronic cough	Bites nails
Sore gums	Excessive use of lavatory

*Appearance**Health Habits*

Underweight	Poor sleep habits
Overweight	Falls asleep in school
Tires easily	Poor food habits
Awkward	
Bad posture	
Excessive height	
Retarded stature	
Dry, scaly skin	
Protruding eyeballs	
Frequent itching	
Blind spells	
Fainting spells	
Puffy eyes and face	
Swollen hands or feet	
Sallow Complexion	

LEARNING ABOUT MYSELF IN ORDER TO PLAN
MY PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

Name.....

*What I explored**What I found**What I need
to do*

Physical condition
Physical growth
Strengths
Endurances

<i>What I explored</i>	<i>What I found</i>	<i>What I need to do</i>
How I manage my body everyday movements in working and playing
Nutrition		
diet
eating habits
The way I spend my time		
leisure
work, service
study, rest
relaxation
Getting along with others		
boys
girls
adults
Self-management		
ability to organize
self-control
self-respect
Knowledge about physical		
education
activities
Interest in the activities
Standards and regulations
The teachers and others in the department

(9:4)

Minimum Health Service Records

The minimum requirements for an adequate health-service record system demands a brief accumulation of all pertinent data collected from the following sources:

1. The preschool examination.
2. The school health service examination (history, findings, advice).
3. Correspondence with family.
4. Correspondence with family medical advisers.
5. Correspondence with clinics and agencies.
6. School health service, notes, reports from teachers, special teachers, nutritionist and psychologist; and the doctor's summary.

7. Nurses' reports.
8. Notes of counselors and record of use made of these data for guidance purposes.
9. A chronological record of examinations, tests, corrections, illnesses, and observations from all sources (7:55).

The health data found on a general cumulative record are insufficient. A far more satisfactory system is to have a separate health-record division of the permanent record file properly maintained and protected as confidential data.

The cumulative health record developed by the State of Connecticut possesses some unique features. Twelve spaces are included for the annual height-weight, sight, and hearing tests required by special laws. The spaces for height and weight are doubled to accommodate results of weighing and measuring at least twice a year. Incorporated into the card are (1) four questions to assist the physician in advising the school and parent: (a) Does this pupil need medical care? (b) Is further examination or laboratory test recommended? (c) Does any irremediable defect exist? . . . (d) Are there problems relating to growth, development, or nutrition, with which teachers and parents should be acquainted? (2) There is space to provide for recording, each September and February, the data of the pupil's last-known visit to the dentist. (3) Under the space "Previous Health History" only the more serious diseases, such as rheumatic fever, are listed. Measles, chicken pox, etc., are listed only when necessary. Pre-school health notes are requested. (4) Mental tests are listed, giving the child's chronological age and mental age. (5) A large space is provided for teacher's notes on pupil's physical, mental, and emotional health. Teachers are asked to observe frequent headaches, persistent mouth breathing, speech difficulty, shyness, etc. (2:444).

Miscellaneous Illustrative Records of Importance

Transfer Records

When pupils transfer from one school to another they should take with them a "packet," which includes the cumulative rec-

ord, health record, and examples of work products. Without repeating the contents of the cumulative record again, it is appropriate here to emphasize such items as a detailed summary of school experiences in units of work. Without such a record it is increasingly possible that pupils will be forced to review similar subject matter in units of work. There are no standard forms for transfer records. Potter (18) found that in Oregon some transfer records are received on post cards or ordinary stationery, merely listing subjects taken by the pupils and the grades received. In other cases, elaborate photostatic copies of the pupil's record are transmitted. This is by far the most satisfactory type of transfer record. On some of those copies, however, no information is given that might help interpret the wide variety of signs and symbols used. One reason for these unsatisfactory conditions is lack of clerical help.

It is common practice among some schools to transfer records only when a request is received. In these cases a unified form is used to make the request for transfer. Here is an example used by some schools in California:

TRANSFER RECORD

Board of Education, San Jose, California

....., California

Dear:

..... was admitted to the
 School on

Will you kindly supply the information requested concerning grade placement and school achievement:

1. Grade
2. Quality of work the pupil is capable of doing:
 Superior Average Below Average
 If you have a record of the I.Q., please supply it.....
 Name of Test
3. Attendance:
 Regular Irregular
4. Attitude toward school

5. Additional information: Any additional information that you wish to give concerning will be appreciated. Use the opposite side of the paper.

Very truly yours,

Principal

Referral of Pupil to a Specialist

The classroom teacher frequently discovers cases of such extreme maladjustment that referral must be made to a specialist. The specialist himself may find need for further referrals and consultations. Once again, no standard procedure has evolved concerning how a referral shall be made; therefore, each school is likely to work out its own system and record forms. The following form has been found satisfactory in one school system:

REFERRAL SHEET FOR (EXCEPTIONAL) PUPIL

Name Birth

Verified by Present Address

..... Phone

I. Reason for Referral:

II. Education Record

A. Educational History from Other School Districts

B. Strong Points

C. Weak Points

III. Language Spoken by the Pupil

IV. Language Spoken by Family in the Home

V. Personal Adjustment

VI. Social Relations

A. Home and Family

B. School

C. Community

D. Age-Mates

VII. Interests and Hobbies

VIII. Previous School Behavior and Maladjustments

Date

Teacher and/or Counselor

School

Principal

(Also packet, duplicate permanent record and duplicate health card are to be sent with this report to)

Information Blanks from Home

As a part of guidance routine a few school systems have found it convenient to obtain as quickly and as economically as possible information about the child from a written or oral interview with the parent. Two forms for recording such data are illustrated:

Please fill out and return to the school.

Name of Child Birthday.....

Telephone Number Birthplace.....

Mother Father

Birthplace Birthplace

U.S. Citizen. Yes No U.S. Citizen. Yes No

Occupation Occupation

Family Status

Normal..... Any Other.....

Number of children in the family

Position of this child in the family.

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....

5..... 6..... 7..... 8.....

Home Language

Language used most in the home

In case of EMERGENCY:

Family physician Tel. no.

Close friend or neighbor Tel. no.

Board of Education Jordon School District

..... Superintendent

Sandy R.F.D. No. 1, Utah

PUPIL GUIDANCE INVENTORY (Primary Grades)

Name of Child

Name of Parent

Name of Teacher

Name of Principal

School..... Grade.....

Date.....

Dear Parent:

The purpose of this card is to secure your help in collecting information that we need to understand your child better. We are anxious to give him the guidance that he needs in his school work. Wide differences in ability, interests, and understandings are inevitable in any group of children as well as adults. We want to help your child to grow at his own rate and in his own pattern.

Please help us by answering these questions after talking them over with your child. If there are certain questions you do not wish to answer, just leave the space blank.

Please bring this card with you to the Parent-Teacher Conference.
April 18, 19—.

1. a. What evidence does your child show of enjoying his school work?
(enthusiastic, anxious to go to school, etc.)
.....
.....
- b. Do you encourage your child to share school experiences with you?
2. What are his interests outside of school? (such as dancing, music lessons, etc.)
.....
.....
3. a. What home responsibilities does he have?
.....
.....
- b. Does he assume these willingly without being reminded each time?
4. Does he take good care of his clothes, playthings, and other materials?
5. Does he get sufficient rest and sleep?
6. Does he finish work begun?
7. Is he easily discouraged?
8. a. Does he play well with others?
- b. Does he play well alone?
9. a. How often does he attend the movies?
- b. Are these selected for him?
10. a. To what radio and television programs does he listen?
-
- b. Please list his first and second choices

11. a. Does he have access to books and magazines at home on his own interest level?
- b. Does he make good use of these?
12. Does he have, or has he had, any illness that seems to interfere with his school program?
-
13. Please give names and ages of brothers and sisters.

Name	Age	Name	Age
.....
.....
.....
.....

Please list any additional information that you think will help us in guiding your child.

SUMMARY

Records are essential in preventing confusion, duplication, and excess clerical service. The phrase "personnel records" includes all the records of the school in which can be found information about individuals. Classified according to function, personnel records are listed as (1) forms dealing with registration and classification of pupils, (2) attendance records, (3) routine permits and passes, (4) reports to parents, (5) health and physical-training records, (6) special and cumulative record cards, and (7) reports to colleges and standardizing agencies. A broader classification would classify record forms into (a) office records, and (b) counseling records.

The characteristics of a good record are that (1) they contain accurate data; (2) data can be easily scrutinized for reliability; (3) they are simple and well organized. Records are an integral part of the learning process in relation to evaluation of individual progress and self-development. Especially helpful to the guidance program is the cumulative card, containing data related to the child's school history. On the cumulative card are recorded data regarding synthesis of other data, giving a complete, integrated, and descriptive picture of the whole child. The newer forms of the cumulative record place less emphasis on marks and

credits and more emphasis on descriptions of behavior and evaluation of such personal qualities as work habits, ability to think logically, mastery of techniques, oral and written communication, interests and experience, educational plans, and behavioral disorders. The plan for the cumulative record should be devised by a democratic process which gives teachers, special counselors, or administrators an equal share in making.

Under the topic of "Reporting Pupil Progress" recommendations were made to substitute a better record of progress than the traditional "mark." Conclusions were made that the formal traditional report card has done more harm than good because of its unreliability and because of the hazard it offers to the mental health of the child. A better form of reporting pupil progress results through the use of frequent conferences between parent and teacher. The effectiveness of these conferences can be enhanced by preparing parents for the conference, by using a conference form, by basing the conference on anecdotal records or products of school work, and by sending some record of the conference home with the parent. •

The extensiveness of necessary school health records should give them a special division in the cumulative record system. The health data found in the usual cumulative record card are insufficient because the allotted space does not permit the recording of enough data. It was recommended, therefore, that separate cumulative health records be used to supplement the usual health data found on general permanent cumulative cards.

Finally, regardless of the type of cumulative record used, sufficient information should be included that it may be used for guidance. Photostatic copies of data are the most satisfactory when students are transferred from one school to another.

QUESTIONS AND STUDY GUIDE

1. What information is lacking in the following data taken from a cumulative record?
Name: Philip Jones
Age: Ten years
IQ: 105

2. Is a report to parents part of the education process? Evaluation process? Support your answer.
3. Should the cumulative record include anecdotes? Why?
4. It is recommended in this chapter that health data be recorded on special cards. Are there other aspects of the pupil's life which may also require more space? Why?
5. Under what conditions, if any, is the principal of a school justified in keeping part of the pupil's record in a sealed envelope?
6. What are the possible disadvantages in permitting a classroom teacher access to IQ data?
7. Make an outline of a plan of transition from "traditional marks" to teacher-parent conference.
8. How would you meet the following argument for marks: "High schools require that elementary schools submit marked report cards."
9. Is it practical or merely theoretical that pupils can help prepare their own report to parents? Why?
10. Make a critical analysis of all examples of reports given for illustration in this chapter.

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